

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG ATTACHMENT ANXIETY, AVOIDANCE,
ACCEPTING THE PAST, AND AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORY

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ABSTRACT

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG ATTACHMENT ANXIETY, AVOIDANCE, ACCEPTING THE PAST, AND AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORY

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The purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationships among accepting and reminiscing the past, attachment dimensions, and autobiographical memory. University students (N=182) participated to the study (105 women, 77 men). The relationships among attachment anxiety, avoidance, accepting and reminiscing the past, and autobiographical memory were examined within the context of emotionally charged memories and the phenomenological properties of the recalled autobiographical memories, such as the recollection, coherence, and persistence of the reported memories. Results revealed that attachment anxiety significantly predicted the visceral reactions to emotional memories, the vividness and negative valence of the recalled memories, overall the affective aspects of autobiographical memories. Results also indicated that attachment anxiety was a reliable predictor of accepting the past. The interaction between attachment anxiety and avoidance has also a predictive effect on the specificity of memory (specificity of the memory to the

person) and vividness, When the patterns of the interaction effect were examined, it was observed that individuals with high attachment anxiety and avoidance (i.e. fearful attachment) reported high scores in specificity, vividness, and cognitive properties of the recalled memories than individuals with low anxiety and high avoidance (i.e., dismissive attachment), suggesting that dismissing individuals repress their memories and fearful hyperactivate them. Attachment avoidance has a significant predictive effect on recollection. Examination of the effect of the accepting the past on the phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory indicated that accepting the past significantly predicted positive and negative valence, perspective, and visceral reactions. Partially supporting the hypotheses, these results suggested that attachment anxiety, but not avoidance has a consistent effect on the affective aspects of autobiographical memory. Findings were discussed on the basis of the literature on both attachment and autobiographical memory.

Keywords: Attachment, autobiographical memory, accepting the past, reminiscing the past.

ÖZ

BAĞLANMA KAYGISI, KAÇINMA, GEÇMİŞİ KABUL ETME VE OTOBİYOGRAFİK BELLEK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER

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Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer

Bu araştırmanın amacı, geçmişini kabul etme ve anımsama, bağlanma boyutları ve otobiyografik bellek arasındaki ilişkiyi arařtırmaktır. Arařtırmaya 182 üniversite öđrencisi katılmıştır (105 kadın, 77 erkek). Bağlanma, geçmişini kabul etme ve anımsama ile otobiyografik bellek arasındaki ilişkiler duygu yüklü anılar ve hatırlanan otobiyografik anıların yeniden yaşıyormuşluk hissi, tutarlılığı, ve sürekliliđi gibi fenomenolojik özellikleri bağlamında incelenmiştir. Arařtırma sonuçları, bağlanma kaygısının duygusal anılar karşısında ortaya çıkan fiziksel tepkileri, anının ne derece açık ve net hatırlanacağını ve anının olumsuz duygusal değerini anlamlı düzeyde yordadığını göstermiştir. Arařtırma bulguları ayrıca, bağlanma kaygısının, geçmişini kabul etme deđişkeninin güçlü bir yordayıcısı olduğunu göstermiştir. Bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınmasının ortak etkisinin de anının

özgüllüğü (kişiyeye özel bilgiler içermesi) ve anının açıklığı ve netliğı üzerinde yordayıcı bir etkisi vardır. Ortak etkinin örüntüsü incelendiğinde, yüksek bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınmasına sahip olan bireylerin, yani korkulu bağlanmanın, hatırlanan anıların özgüllüğü, açıklık ve netliğı ve bilişsel özellikleri değişkenlerinde düşük bağlanma kaygısı ve yüksek kaçınmaya sahip bireylerden, yani kaçınmacı bağlanmadan daha yüksek puanlar aldıkları gözlenmiştir. Kaçınma ise yeniden yaşıyormuşluk duygusu üzerinde anlamlı bir yordayıcı etkiye sahiptir. Geçmiş kabul etmenin, otobiyografik belleğin fenomenolojik özellikleri üzerindeki etkisi incelendiğinde, anının olumlu ve olumsuz değerini, kişinin anıyı hatırlarken sahip olduğu bakış açısını ve anıya verilen fiziksel tepkileri yordadığı gözlenmiştir. Araştırma hipotezleri kısmen destekleyen bu araştırma sonuçlarına bağlı olarak, kaçınma boyutunun olmasa da, bağlanma kaygısının otobiyografik belleğin duyuşsal özellikleri üzerinde tutarlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bulgular, hem bağlanma, hem de otobiyografik bellek literatürleri temelinde tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Bağlanma, otobiyografik bellek, geçmiş kabul etme, geçmiş anımsama.

To my family, Mehmet, Mine, and Işıl Boyacıođlu

To my husband, Meriç Şengül

To my friends, Çakıl Saraç, Ayça Özen, Nacar Demir, and Emek Bilal Saymaz

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Bowlby's (1969, 1979, 1980) attachment theory has been used as a framework to understand various phenomena in all sort of close relationships for almost two decades starting with the seminal study of Hazan and Shaver (1987) that attempted to utilize attachment theory in examining the dynamics of adult intimate relationships (for extensive reviews see Hazan & Shaver, 1994, Milkulincer & Shaver, 2005). In a separate line of research, autobiographical memory has also been a central research topic that examines the life long collections of personal experiences and memories that have critical implication for interpersonal relationships defined as "life memories as a mirror of the narrator" (Robinson, 1989). Although the literatures on both attachment and autobiographical memory have a long history and share critical aspects in examining the life experiences, a comparatively few studies have examined the link between these constructs (e.g., Conway, Singer, & Tagini, 2004; Farrar et. al., 1997; Reese, 2002). Current study is aimed at investigating the interplay between the two fundamental dimensions of attachment, namely anxiety and avoidance, and the defining properties of autobiographical memory.

Previous studies on the relationship between attachment and memory stressed on the affective factors which influence encoding, storage, and retrieval in the information processes (e.g., Baldwin et. al. 1996; Hesse, 1996; Kirsch, 1996; Mikulincer, & Orbach, 1995). Although previous studies did not directly examine the effect of attachment on autobiographical memories, a few studies examined its effect on personal memories. These studies revealed that overall life narratives are influenced by attachment styles. However, the associations between adult attachment dimensions and autobiographical have largely remained unexamined. The main objective of this study is to empirically examine this association using the recent approaches and models in both attachment and autobiographical memory literature.

In the following sections, the theoretical background for both attachment and autobiographical memory will be summarized and the past research findings on the related issues will be presented. Secondly, the pattern of the assumed relationships between autobiographical memory and attachment dimensions will be specified. Finally, research questions and expectations of the present study will be presented.

1.1. Theoretical Background of Autobiographical Memory and Attachment

1.1.1. Autobiographical Memory

Autobiographical memory is a memory type that collects memories of a person's own life experiences (Conway & Rubin, 1994, Robinson, 1989). Reese (2002) describes the autobiographical memory as “a complex and multiply determined skill which involves the neurological, social, cognitive, and linguistic components”

(p.123). Specifically, autobiographical memory allows individuals to retain their past experiences and to retrieve these experiences when they need particular information from the past to respond to given stimuli (Singer, 1995).

Autobiographical memories are marked by a sense of reliving, namely recollection. Recollection is a defining feature that distinguishes the autobiographical memory from the other states, such as imagining or dreaming, and from the retrieval of facts about the self (Rubin, Schrauf, & Greenberg, 2003). Belief in the accuracy of the memory is also a basic characteristic of autobiographical memories (Brewer, 1989). Belief influences “whether the people will act or testify on their memories” (Rubin & Siegler, 2004, p.915). The remembered autobiographical events are personally significant and they are necessary for the construction of the self. Because autobiographical memory is closely related to the self and self-related aspects, such as emotions, goals, and perception, it has been an attractive research issue in psychological sciences (Cohen, 1996).

Although autobiographical memory is a central issue in different subareas of psychology, the majority of their findings remained isolated. The sources of the isolation are the complexity of the issue and the relationships of the autobiographical memory with different research questions in different traditions in psychology (Conway & Pleydell-Pearce, 2000). For instance, autobiographical memory has been studied by developmental psychology to understand the memory development in children (e.g., Farrar, Fasig, & Welch-Ross, 1997; Reese, 2002), by a cultural approach to compare distribution of autobiographical memories across the lifespan (e.g., Berntsen & Rubin, 2004; Wang & Conway, 2004), by the researchers

studying psychopathology (e.g., Rubin, Feldman, & Beckham, 2004; Fromholt et al., 2003; Berntsen, Willert, & Rubin, 2003), by neuropsychological studies (e.g., Barnier, Hung, & Conway, 2004; Conway, Harries, Noyes, Rachma'ny, & Frankish, 2000), and by an interest in the social function of autobiographical memory, such as its functions in conservation, interaction, and adaptation (e.g., Alea & Bluck, 2003; Bluck, 2003). In experimental perspective on the study of autobiographical memory, the encoding, retention, and retrieval processes in autobiographical memory are central research subjects. The theoretical perspective of developmental psychology observes the changes in autobiographical memory during the life cycle. The theoretical perspective of personality and social psychology focuses on the association between self, identity, and autobiographical memory (Rubin, 1989).

Conway and Pleydell-Pearce's (2000) the Self-Memory System Model (SMS) which was developed in recent days brings together most of these sources. The SMS model regards memories as transitory dynamic mental constructions emerged from a knowledge base. The SMS model defines three levels of specificity which are organized around a shared theme in autobiographical memories: lifetime periods, general events, and event-specific knowledge (ESK). These levels are consistent with the numerous studies which pointed out that autobiographical memory organized temporarily (Brewer, 1989). Lifetime periods represent general knowledge for the significant others, common locations, actions, activities, plans, and goals that characterize a particular period in the individual's life. Lifetime periods have identifiable beginnings and endings, although these time cuts are fuzzy, such as 'when I was at school', 'when I lived with x', and 'when I was at

university' (Conway et al., 2000). Life time periods correspond to Linton's *extendures* which represent sets of memories organized around some persistent orientations (Linton, 1989). General events are more specific than lifetime periods. Moreover, they are more heterogeneous. General events are categories of events which cover brief time periods (a week, a day, a few hours) or which organized around a shared theme, such as first-time experiences, academic meetings, etc. (Conway, Singer, & Tagini, 2004). General events correspond to Linton's *events* or *episodes* which refer to memories for self-contained sets of actions, events, and so on (Linton, 1989). The third layer of autobiographical knowledge is ESK that represents images, feelings, and highly specific details (Conway & Rubin, 1994). ESK details contextualize within a general event which is linked to one or more lifetime periods. ESK corresponds to Linton's *elements* which comprise *details* about color, sound, location so on (Linton, 1989). Life time periods, general events, and ESK are main components of the autobiographical knowledge base (Conway et al., 2004).

In producing autobiographical memory, the autobiographical knowledge base and the conceptual self have important roles. All three levels of specificity in autobiographical memory create long-term self with the contribution of the conceptual self. The long-term self that represents the knowledge required by the working self consisting of a set of goal hierarchy to arrange and instantiate current goal processes, is a new contribution to the model. Figure 1.1 illustrates this process. In the SMS model, autobiographical memories produce a sense of continuity in self over time (Conway et al., 2000).

The Conceptual self consists of non-temporally specified conceptual self structures. Conceptual self interacts with the autobiographical knowledge base and contributes to the organization of it via exemplifying, contextualizing, and grounding its underlying themes and concepts. The units of the conceptual self serve in defining the self, the others, and typical interactions with others and the environment in daily life (Conway et al., 2004). Components of long-term self are shown in Figure 1.1.

In the conceptual self, personal scripts function as abstract structures that represent templates for the sequences of actions, outcomes, and affects. For instance, self-defining memory (SDM) acts as a regulator of mood states and is strongly associated with personal scripts. The SMS model conceives of SDMs “as particularly powerful integrations of personal scripts within the Conceptual Self and knowledge within the Autobiographical Knowledge Base that is linked thematically to these scripts” (Conway et al., 2004, *p.*507). According to Singer and Moffit (1991), the SDM is a specific kind of autobiographical memory that is marked by the properties of affective intensity, vividness, high levels of rehearsal, associations with similar memories, and relevance to a stable concern or unresolved conflict (cited in Conway et. al., 2004). Possible selves represent self-knowledge consisting of the thoughts of an individual about their potential and about their future (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Possible selves, beliefs, attitudes, and values are also abstracted knowledge and they are connected with the autobiographical knowledge and episodic memory system (Conway et al., 2004) as presented in Figure 1.1.

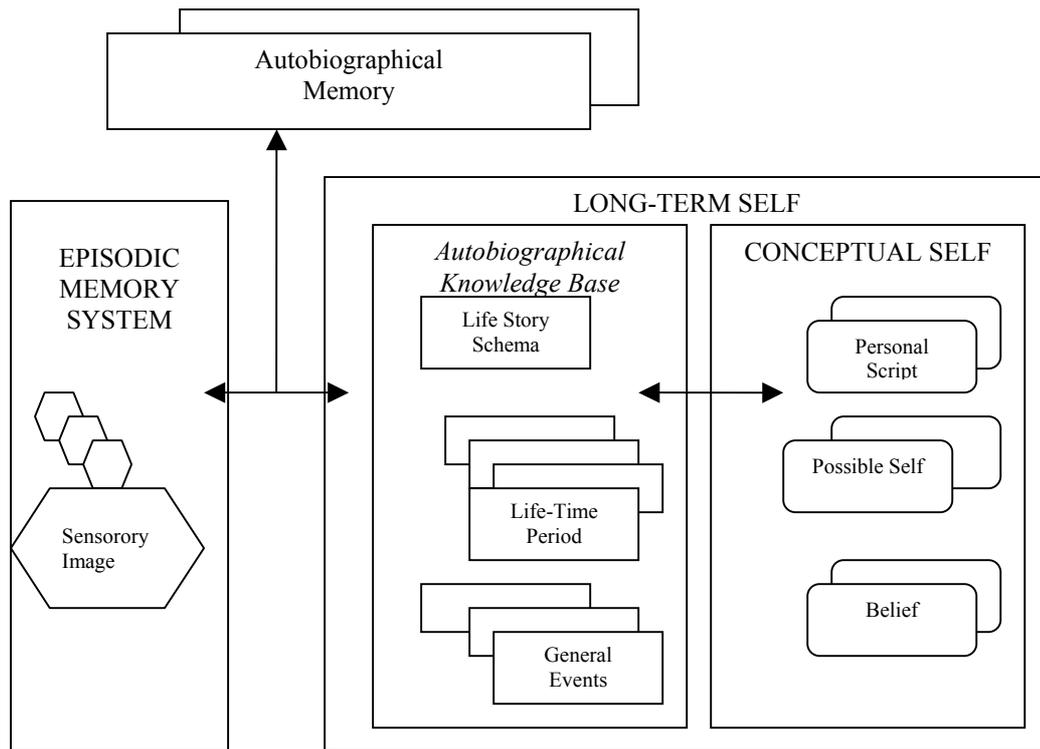


Figure 1.1. Generation of autobiographical memories

Source: Conway, M.A., Singer, J.A., & Tagini, A. (2004). The self and autobiographical memory: Correspondence and coherence. *Social Cognition*, 22(5), 491-529.

Reiser, Black, and Kalamarides (1989) argued that the organization of autobiographical memory is underlined by motivations for planning and performing actions, and for understanding real-world events via the use of autobiographical memory knowledge structures. Similarly, the SMS is a “superordinate” memory system proposing a knowledge base and set of hierarchically structured goals, namely “working self”. Working self modulates access to the autobiographical knowledge base and thus knowledge formulated and processed as goal-related data (Conway & Holmes, 2004). The working self has a major role in the construction of specific memories during remembering. For the SMS model, the knowledge base that underlies the autobiographical memories is very sensitive to cues and the

patterns of activation in the indexes of autobiographical knowledge structures. These processes are generally far from the consciousness. There is surely a control process that executes plans arisen from the current goals of the working self. Conway, et. al. (2004) proposed that the goal structure of the working self is vital in both encoding and retrieval of autobiographical knowledge. The goals of the working self determine the access into the autobiographical knowledge base. At this point, the existence of some particular retrieval models which may facilitate or prevent access is suggested by the researchers. According to Reiser and his colleagues (1989), goals provide a rich source for information and influence retrieval in several ways. First, considering the goals related to the event facilitates remembering the given event via narrowing the search context. Second, considering the goals related to a remembered memory may provide to recall a specific version of the given event. Third, considering a goal related to the given event may activate contextualizing episode. Lastly, considering a specific goal leads predictions about a number of actions in memory that might have been performed relevant to that goal.

The goal process contains a standard or ideal which determines the discrepancy between the desired end and the current status of the goal process. This view is inspired from Carver and Scheier's (1998) approach that introduces the effect of discrepancy among the cognition, behavior, and affect. Assessment of the progress on goal attainment is experienced as emotion by the individual. The contemporary self-regulation theories referred to the working self as an agent for goal processing. The working self refers to further more for the SMS model than a simple comparator. The working self is also conceptualized as an organizer of the

current experience (Conway et al., 2004).

According to Conway and colleagues (2004), the goal and sub-goal hierarchy of the working self generates

a complex process in which different sub-processes are either actively running or motivating cognition, affect, and behavior, or are above some threshold of activation and set to enter the current processing sequence when cued by control processes (p.493).

In short-term, to keep in mind the specific and detailed episodic memories of recent activities is a critical function of memory in goal attainment. In the long-term functions, however, more abstract autobiographical memory knowledge structures, such as general events and lifetime periods enter into this framework. In this scheme, disruptions or status changes in ongoing goal activity are perceived as challenges to self-coherence. In such conditions, “control processes in the working self shift from inhibition of autobiographical memories (which might distract the attention from current goal activity) to instantiation of retrieval mode that prompts a search through the long-term self” (p.495). If the threat toward goal attainment cannot be removed, this shift will extend and long-term self will tend to dominate attention. In this process, addressed tension between ongoing process and long-term self were called as the tensions between adaptive correspondence and self-coherence. Adaptive correspondence refers to the need to encode experience-near sensory-perceptual records of ongoing process. The competing demand, namely self-coherence is needed to maintain a coherent and stable record of the self’s interaction with its environment. According to the SMS model, adaptive correspondence and self-coherence have equal importance. The flexibility of the SMS is critical for healthy functioning (Conway et al., 2004).

The modified version of the SMS model incorporated the tension between adaptive correspondence and self-coherence into the model. According to the SMS model, autobiographical memory is formed by the intersection of two competing demands; self-coherence and adaptive correspondence. The main contention of this version is to examine this tension in relation to each the SMS component –the episodic memory system, long-term self, and the working self (Conway et al., 2004).

In summary, autobiographical memory is the knowledge associated with the self (Brewer, 1989). Although autobiographical memory has been studied in different fields of psychology, the findings of these studies were not brought together under a comprehensive model. Conway and Pleydell-Pearce (2000) developed the SMS model to response the need for an umbrella for the findings of the distinct studies. Conway and his colleagues (2004) proposed two basic components, namely episodic memory system and long-term self which consists of the autobiographical knowledge base and the conceptual self in developing autobiographical memories. In the SMS model, these processes are goal-driven and controlled by working self. The working self serves as an organizer between two basic tendencies: self-coherence and adaptive correspondence. The tension between these two demands is used as a general paradigm by Conway and his friends to explain the distortions in memory including repression, memories for traumatic events, and inconsistent narratives in insecure attachment groups. In the present study, the findings will be discussed from the viewpoint of the SMS model.

1.1.2. Internal Working Models of Attachment

The focus of psychology has shifted from one subject to another in a short history and psychoanalysis, behaviorism, cognitivism, and neuroscience are the major shift points of psychology. After all, there is no doubt about that ‘human mind/ brain is a social machine’ (p. 55). Attachment theory of Bowlby is one of the prior theories which combine the main points of different fields of psychology (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003).

Bowlby (1969) argued that attachment has served as a survival mean which protects persons against the threat of environment. In this evolutionary approach, seeking proximity of significant others is a natural adaptation of human being to generate and to protect their species. The caregivers are the primary attachment figures during the long standing infancy period in which the infant always needs protection and care of the others to survive. In adulthood, the mental representations of attachment figures continue to produce the sense of safety.

According to Bowlby (1969), proximity seeking behaviors are required to survive and a partner who meet particular physical and social needs produce a sense of safety. Bowlby (1973) investigated individual differences in attachment behavioral system. The attachment pattern in which the attachment figure is available and responsive provides healthy functioning in attachment behavioral system, while the interaction characterized by unavailable and unresponsive attachment figure shifts the proximity seeking strategy to secondary attachment strategies (cited in Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003).

The caregiver's emotional availability and responsiveness to the child's needs determine the quality of the infant-caretaker relationship (Collins & Allard, 2001), and the internal mental representations of the child for the world, the significant others and the self, called as "model of self and model of others" are formed on the basis of early interactions with caregivers (Bolwby, 1973). These models allow the child to realize the absence and the presence of the attachment figure (Berman & Sperling, 1994).

It is commonly accepted that working models include two complementary components based on the infant-caretaker relationship. The first component refers to the attachment figure and characterizes emotional availability and responsiveness of the caregivers. The second component refers to the self and characterizes whether he or she is worthy of love and care (Collins & Allard, 2001).

Collins and Read (1994) suggested that working models have four interrelated components: (1) memories of attachment related experience; (2) attachment-related beliefs, attitudes, and expectations about the self and others; (3) attachment-related goals and needs; and (4) strategies and plans for attachment goals. These components show different patterns due to the attachment styles (Collins & Allard, 2001).

Attachment theory has been applied to the phenomenon in adult close relationships by social psychologists (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Adult attachment refers to the stable tendency to achieve safety and security via one or a few significant others. This tendency is shaped and managed by internal working models of attachment

(Berman & Sperling, 1994). Attachment defines a behavioral system which organizes an individual's behaviors (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). In the absence of attachment figures, attachment reveals a limited set of characteristics including behavioral, emotional, and cognitive activities. Internal working models are composed of information about the self, the attachment figures, stable components of a relationship in particular situations, and affective links. Adult attachment is generally conceptualized as the main source of individual differences. Attachment styles characterize people's behavioral, cognitive, and affective responses to real or imagined separation or reunion from an attachment figure. It is supposed that attachment working models are consistent across time and across relationships (Berman & Sperling, 1994).

Although Bowlby's attachment theory focuses on the relationship between infants and their caregivers, it has been argued that attachment principles can be widely applied to other types of close relationships as shown in studies starting from the early 1980s (Feeney, 1999). It was accepted that the internalized interaction patterns can influence future relationships. According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2003), the studies on attachment patterns different from infant-caregiver attachment have focused on attachment style differences in (1) the style persons construe their romantic relationship experiences and beliefs, (2) the style they cope with the conflicts in their close relationships, (3) their proneness to share personal information and feelings with others (self-disclosure), and (4) reliability of attachment (trust in romantic partner).

Mikulincer and Sharir (2002) provide initial evidence for attachment styles differences in conflict resolution strategies in close relationships (cited in Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). Mikulincer and Nachshon (1991) indicated that attachment strategies show differences in self-disclosure and in response to the partner's self-disclosure. The study conducted by Collins (1996) showed that the attributions of a person to the negative behaviors of his or her partner changed due to his or her attachment style which lead the person trust or not in the attachment figure. In following studies, these attachment style differences have been examined in details (see Fraley & Shaver, 2000).

The classification of attachment styles has also a long history which began with studies of Ainsworth (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). Ainsworth and her colleagues (1978) identified three distinct infant attachment patterns based on the findings of strange situation technique: secure, anxious-resistant, and avoidant. In these studies, it was observed that infant behaviors clearly varied due to attachment quality between the infant and its caregiver. Accordingly, Hazan and Shaver (1987, 1988) argued that romantic relationships also show attachment patterns and secure, avoidant, and ambivalent attachment can be observed between romantic partners. After this critical finding, the categorization of secure, anxious-resistant, and avoidant became a standard used in adult attachment categorization (see Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Sümer, 2006).

Because of the limitation of the three category model of attachment (see Sümer 2006 for a discussion), Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) proposed a four-category model for adults that divided the avoidant group into two different styles.

Bartholomew and his colleague (1991) stressed that interview method defined avoidance as an attachment style characterized by rejection of experience of subjective distress and of the needs for close relationships, while self-report technique identified avoidance with the characteristics of feeling subjective distress and discomfort in close relationships. Accordingly, the four-category model identified fearful-avoidant and dismissive-avoidant categories due to the combination of the dimensions of the model of self and the model of other. The fearful avoidant category refers to a negative model of self and a negative model of others, while the dismissive avoidant category reflects a positive model of self and negative model of other. Fearful avoidance attachment is characterized by a sense of unworthiness and the expectation of rejection of others. This style is similar to the avoidant style of Hazan and Shaver (1987). Dismissing style depicts a sense of worthiness and negative expectation about other people. This style corresponds to the detached or dismissing attachment identified by Main, Kaplan, and Cassidy (1985). Secure attachment is marked by positive model of self and model of others and individuals in this group are marked by a sense of worthiness and expectation of accepting of others. Other investigators also called this style as secure attachment (e.g. Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Main et. al., 1985). Preoccupied attachment represents positive model of other, but negative model of self. That is, preoccupied persons strive to gain acceptance of valued others because of a sense of unworthiness. This style corresponds with ambivalent attachment group identified by Hazan and Shaver (1987) and enmeshed or preoccupied attachment group of Main et. al. (1985) (cited in Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Recent studies, however, have pointed out the advantage of dimensional approach over the categorical models for the studying variation in romantic attachment (e.g., Sümer, 2006; Fraley & Waller, 1998; Fraley & Shaver, 2000). Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) examined the most frequently used attachment scales and indicated that there are two main dimensions underlying adult attachment behaviors: attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. Fraley and Shaver (2000) discussed the theoretical background of adult romantic attachment and the attachment dimensions. Anxiety dimension corresponds to anxious about rejection and abandonment and avoidance dimension corresponds to discomfort in close relationships. Secure attachment corresponds to the low scores in both dimensions, while fearful attachment manifests in high scores in both dimensions. These dimensions are based on Bartholomew's four category model, model of self and model of others dimensions. Some researchers (e.g., Fraley & Shaver, 1998; Shaver, Hazan, & Bradshaw, 1988), however, claim that these dimensions are underlined by emotional and behavioral regulation (cited in Fraley et. al., 2000). Fraley et. al. (2000) argued that individual differences due to attachment are based on the variation in the organization of the attachment behavioral system, not on the mental representations of self and others per se.

Specifically, the attachment theory specifies how the mental models influence the ways in which adults behave, think, and feel in their close relationships (Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Sümer and Cozzarelli, 2004). This does not mean, however, an attachment style produce the same relationship pattern across time and across relationships. Actually, the nature of attachment in a given relationship is determined by the genetically operated behavioral system, specific history of that

relationship, a mental representation of attachment, and particular situational cues (Berman & Sperling, 1994).

In conclusion, while the impact of attachment over cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes has been studied since the beginning of 1960s, the discussions on measurement of attachment in adults have continued and the dimensional approach that organize attachment experiences around the anxiety experiences in intimate relationships (i.e., the attachment anxiety dimension) and avoidance from others and close relationships (i.e., the attachment avoidance dimension) have been accepted as the major organizing conceptual framework. Although there is a debate in the measurement and conceptualization of main attachment dimensions, previous studies revealed extensive evidence showing the relevance and explanatory power of attachment working models in a number of cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes in close relationships including relationship functioning, quality, communication, and satisfaction in romantic relationships (e.g., Feeney, 1994; Feeney & Noller 1990; Feeney & Noller 1992; Collins & Read, 1990; Brennan, Shaver, & Tobey, 1991; Carnelley, Pietromonaco, & Jaffe, 1996; Hammond & Fletcher, 1991), coping styles (e.g., Cozzarelli, Sumer, & Major, 1998; Feeney & Kirkpatrick, 1996; Mikulincer & Florian, 1995; Mikulincer, Florian, & Weller, 1993), affect regulation (e.g., Kobak & Sceery, 1988; Mikulincer, 1998; Mikulincer, Orbach, & Iavnieli, 1998; Mikulincer & Florian, 2004), and information processing, attributions, and other cognitive/affective processes (e.g., Baldwin et al., 1996; Sümer & Cozzarelli, 2004).

1.2. Autobiographical Memory and Attachment

Although previous studies generally have not been directly concerned with the relationship between autobiographical memory and attachment working models, these two concepts have common aspects. Attachment working models are akin to other cognitive structures, such as schemas, scripts, and prototypes. They have significant roles in organizing personal experiences. They are mostly affect-laden knowledge structures (Collins & Read, 1994) as autobiographical memories. Attachment working models can be assumed as the earliest autobiographical structures. Autobiographical memories of early periods may be part of or indexed by attachment working models. It can be assumed that attachment working models contain a number of nonverbal sensory-perceptual-affective knowledge. Moreover, some conceptual knowledge in attachment working models might be retained in the form of generic images (Conway, 2003).

According to the SMS model, attachment working models can be conceived as a part of the working self given that attachment working models guide the processes in particular goal status changes which threaten the integrity of self-coherence and attachment working models have a long-standing role in underlying the responses of the self in interpersonal relationships. Attachment working models include autobiographical knowledge of childhood, some episodic memories, central beliefs about the self and significant others, and goal structures forming the core of the working self goal hierarchy (Conway et al., 2004).

To better understand the link between autobiographical memory and attachment, the basic differences in memory processes among different attachment styles will be summarized in the following sections.

1.2.1. The Cognitive Relationship between Memory and Attachment Working Models

Collins and Allard (2001) claim that attachment working models should highly influence the following three processes: (a) selective attention, (b) memory, and (c) social construal. Selective attention operates with regard to relevance of information to the individual goals and to the consistency of information with the individual's existing beliefs or attitudes about self and others. Secondly, the expected impact of attachment working models over memory is based on the need for consistency with the existing models of self and others during the processes of storing, recalling, and reconstructing attachment-related memories. The studies given below illustrate the impact of attachment on information processes.

Vermigli and Toni (2004) studied the cognitive aspects of attachment with a procedure which did not include attachment-related tasks. The authors investigated the individual differences in information processing with regard to attachment styles via the test of field dependence/independence. It was found that secure individuals displayed greater curiosity for new information and more actively seek it. Moreover, the secure group was marked by a greater mental openness and cognitive flexibility that means a higher tolerance to ambiguity and a rejection to endorse rigid beliefs. On the other hand, insecure people tended to prefer stable knowledge and displayed high levels of cognitive closure. Avoidantly attached individuals showed greater curiosity about new information than ambivalents and it seems as a strategy to avoid social contact. While avoidants failed to perceive new information and to include it in a broader context, ambivalents focused on details

and, then failed to see totality of the context. The effect of attachment on cognitive processes was interpreted by the researchers as the result of the quantity and quality of the stimuli received in the relationship with the caregiving figure since secure children explore the environment more and obtain a much larger quantity of information and stimuli. This advantage of secure attachment group over the others is marked by greater linguistic, representational, relational, and problem-solving capacities.

A similar study was conducted by Mikulincer (1997) to examine whether attachment groups differ in curiosity and cognitive closure. Again, it was found that there was a remarkable difference between secure and insecure persons. Secure persons appear to have a positive attitude toward information processing, because (a) their self-descriptions involved curiosity, (b) they perceived curiosity as an opportunity, (c) they experienced joy during exploration, and (d) they actually engaged in information processing. On the other hand, insecure persons reported high levels of the need for cognitive closure, preferred secure and stable knowledge, and avoided new evidence that required a revision of existing knowledge. The avoidant and anxious-ambivalent groups differ in interpretation of curiosity. The avoidants appraised curiosity as a mean of contact with others, whereas the anxious-ambivalent individuals perceived curiosity as a mean of attaining control and as a threat toward relationships.

Considering availability and accessibility of knowledge structures, individuals from different attachment styles show consistent differences, such as in access of self-attributes (Mikulincer, 1998), of social knowledge (Baldwin et. al., 1996), and of

emotional memories (Mikulincer & Orbach (1995).

1.2.2. The Motivational Relationship between Memory and Attachment

Working Models

In addition to the cognitive bonds between memory and attachment, motivational factors should also be considered in examining this relationship (Singer, 1990). In the literature on autobiographical memory, motivation has been studied in terms of the impact of goals on autobiographical memory (eg. Singer, 1990; Singer, 1995; Conway et. al., 2004). Similarly, the internal working models of attachment represent the persons' initial goals in close relationships (Bowlby, 1969; Collins & Allard, 2001). Each attachment orientation has a regularity goal which shapes cognitive and affective processes (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). Fraley and Shaver (2000) stated that the working-models construct is located in an attachment system that contains two fundamental subsystems or components which are responsible for following functions: "monitoring and appraising events for their relevance to attachment-related goals", and "regulation of attachment behavior with respect to attachment-related goals" (p. 9-10).

The motivational system serves as a director for thought and action by the way of creating short-term and long-term goals (Singer, 1995). The activated goal in the working self shaped the way of retention of information and if the person achieves or gives up that given goal, 'it no longer exists as an active (procedural) goal of the working self'. Therefore, it can be argued that autobiographical memory is 'a product of the previous goal states of the working self' (Conway & Holmes, 2004, p.477). For instance, the studies conducted by Singer (1990) tested the

reciprocal hypothesis which refers to an affective link between autobiographical memories and long-term goals. Specifically, these studies tested whether the relationship between autobiographical memory and the attainment/nonattainment of an individual's current long-term goals predict the affective quality of the given memory. The results of this study showed a relationship between one's affective response to a memory and the relevance of that memory to the attainment or nonattainment of that person's specific long-term goals. The finding of this study suggested that affective responses of individuals to particular memories could be predicted from the relevance of these memories to goal attainment or nonattainment. This relationship emphasizes the motivational role of memory in personality. Singer proposed that;

The relevance of a memory to the attainment or nonattainment of one's salient goals may inform an individual about possibilities of future goal attainment. At the same time, just as the affect with the original event may have helped to shape one's goals, the affective experience evoked by the memory may reinforce one's current attitude toward the particular goal or goals, thereby motivating one to sustain or abandon efforts at goal attainment (p. 559).

Blagov and Singer (2004) examined the four dimensions of self-defining memories (specificity, meaning, content, and affect) and their relationship with basic personality processes by means of personality measures of defensiveness, self-restraint, and life distress. The findings of the study pointed out that four dimensions considered by the researchers are associated with self-restraint, defensiveness, and levels of distress. The content of self-defining memories was related to emotional distress and narrative specificity was associated with repressive defensiveness. Moreover, the tendency of individuals to interpret the meaning of their memories was linked to self-restraint and adjustment. The authors posit that narratives of memories may

serve a defensive function as the SMS model statement. The repression hypothesis of overgeneralization in autobiographical memory suggests that defensive efforts activate control processes to restrain the search for specific memories to protect the self from emotional threat. This hypothesis was supported by this study. Accordingly, an indirect association between autobiographical memory and attachment can be implied due to repressive defensiveness observed in insecure attachment groups. Shaver and Mikulincer (2002^a) attachment avoidance is marked by a defensive strategy in emotionally threatening situations to achieve ‘at least a degree of safety and proximity’ (p.248).

Considering past findings, it can be argued that people’s beliefs and expectations about relationships of individuals with different attachment styles may lead to differential characteristics in memory processes. Baldwin and colleagues (1996) investigated the availability and accessibility of social knowledge with regard to the attachment styles. The availability of social knowledge implies whether a certain exemplar, construct, or schema is present in memory for the potential to activate during information processes and the accessibility of social knowledge refers to whether existing exemplars, constructs, or schemas are ready for memory processes or not. The findings of this study demonstrated that although people reported a mixture of types of relationships, overall the attachment styles predicted which relationship patterns came to mind most easily and fast. Also both, availability and accessibility of the social information varied according to the attachment patterns. The findings of this study have implications for the retrieval models which facilitate or prevent the accessibility of particular information. As described before, there are individual differences in general retrieval models due to the goal, sub-goal

hierarchy which motivates cognition, affect, and behavior. General retrieval models are developed and function on the motivating goal structure (Conway et. al., 2004). Therefore, it is plausible to argue that each attachment style has typical general retrieval model depending on the main motivation goals and priorities in close relationships. For example, those with preoccupied attachment style excessively seek for intimacy, whereas avoidant individual heavily need for autonomy. Thus, it is expected that particular social knowledge congruence with one of these distinct attachment-related goals are differently accessible for individuals from different attachment styles. Consistent with these arguments, it can be assumed that during evaluating a relationship pattern, autobiographical memory knowledge base is selectively activated by influencing the general retrieval model in information process.

Similarly, Sperling and Lyons (1994) defined the construct of “mental representations” as “enduring matrices of memories, expectations, affects associated with significant interpersonal (usually attachment) relationships” (p.331). These integrated representations are developed through interpersonal experience and they produce internal and external relational narratives. Because of the produced narratives, they influence the assimilation and organization of new relationship-related information.

Considering the results of the studies cited above, one’s need for self consistency can be an explanatory concept. Alea and Bluck (2003) stated that individuals with certain personality traits generally tend to reflect on their past to provide a

consistency with their personal identities. Especially, when, constructing stories, individuals remember their past in a way consistent with their personalities and motives. Attachment working models seem to serve as a basic model for reconstruction of memories consistent with the content and the type of the dominant attachment orientations.

The motivational, affective and cognitive systems interconnect to each other (Singer, 1995). Therefore, it can be argued that a motivational approach to memory contributes in explaining the relationship between autobiographical memory and attachment. Given that people with different attachment styles have specific goals unique to their attachment orientation in close relationships, their affective responses to negative events and differences in coping strategies the specific content and the affective aspects of autobiographic memories may be predicted by the degree of attachment (in)security.

1.2.3. Affect as the Main Bond between Memory and Attachment Working Models

Research on autobiographical memory over the past 20 years has expanded the purely cognitive views of memory to take into account of the role of social, emotional, and motivational aspects (Bluck & Habermas, 2000). In the present study, affect is considered as a core association between memory and attachment. Therefore, the affective aspects of autobiographical memory and attachment will be examined in detail. In this section, firstly, the role of affect in the autobiographical memory will be discussed and secondly, the relationship between affect

and attachment will be described. Lastly, associations between two distinct literatures will be established via summarizing the studies that relate to emotional memories.

1.2.3.1. The Role of Affect in Autobiographical Memory

The previous studies on mood congruence have critical implications for the affective aspects of memory. Mood congruence refers to some materials which are more likely to be stored and/or recalled when one is in a particular mood because of their affectively valenced content (Blaney, 1986). A number of studies were conducted to investigate the relationship between mood congruence and memory (e.g., Blaney, 1986; Dalgleish & Watts, 1990; Singer & Salovey, 1988; Williams, Watts, MacLeod, & Mathews, 1988) and main expectation in these studies was that clinical states, such as depression led to specific retrieval biases (cited in Brewin, Andrews, & Gotlib, 1993). In a similar study conducted in Turkey, it was found that the participants with a depressive mood were more likely to prime negative adjectives, rather than positive adjectives (Tosun & Dağ, 2000). Opposite results were observed in the participants with non-depressive mood. This finding provided support for the mood congruence bias in implicit memory. Some of these studies examined the impact of selective-memory over depression. It seems that mnemonic selectivity occurs in depressed person and this process contributes to the vicious cycle of depression. The selective-memory model fails to account for the nature of a mood congruence effect that is limited by time. Two variables seem important to explain the relationship: the severity of the affective state and individual differences, such as cognitive styles (Blaney, 1986). It is plausible to argue that

people would remember their past memories congruent to their current attachment styles.

Although numerous studies have been conducted to understand the link between emotion and memory, little is known about how pleasantness of the events influences long-term retention of autobiographical memory (Berntsen & Rubin, 2002). However, past literature provides a framework to understand the differences between negatively and positively charged memories. For instance, there is evidence indicating that other things being equal, negative events appear to recruit more physiological, affective, cognitive, and behavioral activity and need more cognitive analysis than neutral or positive events. In essence, the response for negative events is mobilization in short-term and minimization in long-term. There appears to be an asymmetry in the impact of positive and negative events (Taylor, 1991).

In their study, Seidlitz and Diener (1993) examined valance of affect problem by comparing happy and unhappy person. They measured both long-term subjective well-being and current mood and they assess their distinct effects over memory tasks. They found that the difference between happy and unhappy people in recall of positive and negative life events mostly depended upon the different experiences of two groups. Unhappy participants reported more negative life events in objective events checklist than happy participants. The important finding was that unhappy participants also endorsed more negative life events than happy people in the subjective event checklist that consisted interpretive life events by the participants.

Destun and Kuiper (1999) compared the memories for pleasant and stressful events and the results of this study pointed out that positive memories were more detailed than negative memories regarding sensorial and contextual information (cited in D'Argembeau, Comblain, & Linden, 2003). Similarly, D'Argembeau, Comblain, and Linden (2003) found that positive memories were more richly recollected than negative memories. Again, when considering the neutral memories, the positive memories contained more sensorial and contextual details. Interestingly, there was no significant difference between negative and neutral memories. Indeed, they differed only on two memory dimensions: negative memories obtained superior ratings in the clarity of time, while neutral memories showed superior ratings for odour details.

Berntsen (2001) evaluated the memories of traumas and extremely happy events using a diary study. The findings of the study implied that involuntary memories for traumas and peak events showed similar properties in many respects. Both types of memories were more vivid, displayed more mood-impact, and referred to more distinctive experiences than other types of memories. Nonetheless, a clear difference was observed between the memories for traumas and extremely happy events: highly positive memories are less accessible for involuntary retrieval than trauma memories. The researcher explained this finding in terms of aversive content of these memories. Another interpretation proposed by the researcher is that vividness and memory durability are related to different factors at encoding and rehearsal.

Another difference in emotionally charged memories has been observed in the studies about the distribution of autobiographical memories over the lifespan. The distribution of autobiographical memories across the life span was examined in several studies (Berntsen & Rubin, 2002) and the remarkably consistent finding of these studies points out that there are three identifiable components in the distribution of autobiographical memories of the people over 40 years of age. Firstly, the period from age zero to around 5 years represents a period of childhood amnesia. The second component is retention that refers to enhanced memory for events that occurred in the recent years of the life. Lastly, the third component is an increase in memories from the age of 10 to the age of 30, which is characterized by a marked decline (Conway & Rubin, 1994). Rubin and Schulkind (1997) called this component the *bump*, which is theoretically a neutral term. In the lifespan retrieval curves for the people aged near to 35 shows an increase in memories for the event that they experienced between 10 and 30 years old (Holmes and Conway, 1999). In summary, the reminiscence bump peaks in adolescence and more autobiographical memories are recalled for the developmental period (Conway & Rubin, 1994). Reminiscing bump has consistently been observed in positive memories, not in negative memories (Berntsen & Rubin, 2004).

Consequently, affect plays a crucial role in memory processes. The studies addressed above on mood congruence, depression, psychological well-being, evaluation of past events, memory tasks for positive and negative events, voluntary and involuntary retrieval for emotionally charged memories, and with the respect to the reminiscing the bump indicate that the content (negatively/positively valenced) and intensity of emotions lead to critical memory differences.

1.2.3.2. The Role of Affect in Attachment

Bowlby (1969) argued that attachment-related behaviors are organized around an affect regulation system. Attachment figures serve as a safe environment in which persons feel comfortable and removed from stress. When a stressor enters to the picture, the attachment system is activated as a protective mechanism which leads to a person maintain proximity to a significant other (cited in Mikulincer and Florian, 2004).

In the attachment literature, hyperactivation and deactivation of the attachment system are considered as the major secondary attachment strategies. Hyperactivating strategies represent the responses which are insistent in proximity-seeking and intense orientation on attachment figure to gain the attachment figure's love and support. In contrast, deactivating strategies are based on the denial of attachment needs and deactivation of attachment behavioral system. The deactivating individuals avoid proximity-seeking and strive to be independent (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003).

One of the basic assumptions of the attachment theory is that attachment styles differ in the strategies of affect regulation where a stressing stimulus exists. Thompson (1994) divided the aspects of affect regulation in stress situation into three distinct mechanisms: management/redirection of attention (e.g. repression), managing the construal (e.g. attributions, goal substations) of emotional information, and accessing coping resources (e.g. significant others). Affect regulation strategies would characterize the management of negative emotions and coping with stress, and would have an impact on the individual's mental health.

The studies relevant to affect regulation in a stress situation and attachment indicated that individuals with different attachment styles behave in different ways in stressful situations. For instance, avoidant persons may emphasize the need to rely on self and the maintenance of distance from distress cues. Thus, regulatory strategies may reduce overt expressions of distress, but they may be dysfunctional in long-term for severe and persistent problems (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004).

The model manifested by Mikulincer, Shaver, and Pereg (2003) maps the attachment-related strategies. This model has three components consisting of (1) monitoring and appraisal of threatening events, (2) monitoring and appraisal of the real or imagined availability of attachment figure, and (3) monitoring and appraisal of viability of proximity-seeking behaviors. If an individual perceives a threat in environment, primary attachment strategy (proximity seeking) is activated. The attachment strategy shows individual differences due to the perceived support and availability of attachment figure, namely the sense of attachment security. The second component determines whether the *security-based strategies* are activated or not, while the third component determines the activation of secondary strategies (*hyperactivating versus deactivating strategies*).

Beside the affect regulation assumptions, Mikulincer and Florian (2004) hypothesize that attachment styles would be associated with the processing of emotions. It is claimed that secure individuals would acknowledge negative emotions without being overwhelmed by them and easily access and elaborate the processing of them. The anxious-ambivalent (preoccupied) persons would considerate on the negative emotional states, so that they may be unable to repress

them. This coping strategy may lead to linkages between distinct emotions in the semantic memory network and activation of one emotion may easily activate other associated emotions in the network.

Mikulincer (1998) investigated also how affect regulation determine self appraisals in attachment groups. In this study, avoidant participants described themselves in relatively positive terms, showed high accessibility for positive self-attributes, and relatively fast reaction time for endorsing positive self-attributes. Anxious-ambivalent participants tended to overemphasize their personal deficiencies and imperfections. This group was marked by negative self-attributes for describing themselves, high accessibility for negative self-attributes, and fast reaction time for endorsing negative self-attributes. Both groups' self-views were strengthened by distress arousal. Lastly, secure group used more balanced terms in describing themselves and seemed have more stable mental representations which are less sensible to distress cues.

1.2.3.3. Interplay between Memory and Attachment

In their influential study, Tagini, Conway, and Meins (2004) examined memory differences in distinct attachment styles by using the SMS model in their unpublished study. It seems that after particular self-defining memories (SDMs) are invoked by the interaction between attachment working models, long-term self and episodic memory, the conflict between adaptive correspondence and self coherence can be observed in insecure attachment groups (cited in Conway et. al., 2004). In order to clarify this argument, the generation of SDMs was described below.

The SDMs are closely associated with developmental goals and, accordingly, SDMs are very sensitive to changes in developmental goal status. As a consequence of a goal status change, the working self undergoes a process that triggers affects and enters to retrieval mode. When a developmentally central goal is under consideration, the intensity of the affect and activation amplifies. In order to achieve effective evaluation of the goal status change, the control processes in the working self direct attentional focus to input from the long-term self. A retrieval model contacts with the conceptual self and the autobiographical knowledge base to take information. Personal scripts in the conceptual self are activated to specify a goal-action-affect sequence. As a consequence of these automatic affective processes, the long-term self search finally yields a specific SDM. This recollective representation provides goal-relevant cognitive and affective information which guide to the working self (Conway et al., 2004).

In some circumstances, activated SDMs fail to stand at the appropriate distance from ongoing experience and then a breakdown in the balance between adaptive correspondence and self-coherence occurs. The need for self-consistency or the desire to protect self-esteem is able to create distortions in memories (Conway et al., 2004).

Tagini and his colleagues (2004) tested the argument related to SDMs by using the Adult Attachment Interview (AAI; George, Kaplan, & Main, 1985) which provides accompanying criteria for description of adult attachments (cited in Conway et. al, 2004). The AAI, developed in the early 1980s, is an efficient technique to determine the attachment status of individuals. The AAI is a semistructured

protocol consisting of 18 questions. The classification criterion of the AAI is based upon the examination of the narratives of the speakers in terms of coherence and collaboration in past experiences (memories) with caregivers (cited in Hesse, 1999). Tagini and his friends (2004) interviewed with three participants, each of whom has one of three attachment styles; secure-autonomous, preoccupied or entangled, and dismissing. The results showed that insecure participants reported inconsistent life narratives in a self-defining memory task. That is, the coherence of life narratives was damaged because activated SDMs cut down or distorted the ongoing process. Retrieval models in the SMS model guide the search process in the knowledge base via facilitating or attenuating access to the knowledge base. Retrieval models choose to attenuate or prevent access by setting constraints that cut the recall of destabilizing knowledge in the condition of threat of highly emotional materials or attachment memories. In some circumstances, these memories can lead to self-discrepancies. In the AAI and in some of other studies on attachment, participants were unaware of the goals and motives underlying their performance, recall memories, and reactions to the tasks (cited in Conway et al., 2000).

Emotion is believed to play a central role in the emergence of varying forms of the AAI narrative. Because the AAI rests upon verbatim speech transcripts, it seems that its analysis may be remote from the affective components involved in the discourse exchange (Hesse, 1999). Main (1991) has suggested that addition to the differences in *content*, attachment differences in cognition and expression and/or regulation of emotion may be observed in *flexibility and readiness for examination*. Therefore, the capacities of persons for the flexibility of attentional processes influence attachment-related processes. Maintaining the flexibility of attention

during the discussion of attachment-related experiences seems as a central component in the production of a coherent/collaborative narrative (Hesse, 1999). In summary, it is suggested that secure (coherent) discourse is marked by a capacity for fluid shifting of attention between memories evoked by discourse task and maintenance of coherent discourse with the interviewer (Hesse, 1996).

In brief, affect regulation functions as a protective mechanism to cope with threatening internal (e.g., emotional memories) or external stimuli (separation from a significant other, being ignored) for the persons from different attachment styles. In memory processes, attention regulation seems crucial for insecure persons who tend to repress emotional information or to use hyperactivating strategy. It can be proposed that the processes of retrieval models are influenced by these attachment based affect regulation strategies.

The studies of attachment focused on the differences in emotional memories indicate that attachment styles have distinctive properties regarding encoding and recall, especially for emotional memories. As mentioned previously, the study of Mikulincer and Orbach (1995) pointed out that attachment was an important source for the differences in memory tasks. In this study, the repressive defensiveness and recall of early personal experiences of anger, anxiety, sadness, and happiness of three attachment groups (secures, avoidants, and anxious-ambivalents) were examined. As a result of the study, it was found that secure individuals reported moderate defensiveness and low anxiety, and high accessibility of negative memories without being overwhelmed by spreading of the dominant emotional tone (a negative one) to other nondominant negative emotions (depression,

embarrassment, anger, and sadness in the anxiety-arousing episode; fear, disgust, depression, and anger in the sad episode, and fear and anxiety in the anger-arousing episode). Secure and ambivalent participants did not differ in the intensity of the dominant emotions evoked by the negative memories, whereas they showed great difference in the intensity of the nondominant emotions evoked by the negative memories. Secure persons may be able to encapsulate the distressing memories and they feel lower anxiety than two other attachment groups. The anxious-ambivalent attached people showed relatively high levels of anxiety and low levels of defensiveness. The reason of the low levels of defensiveness may be the lack of ability of repression or the lack of will to repress negative affects and thoughts. On the other hand, avoidantly attached people were the most defensive group to negative memories. Although they showed high levels of repression, their style was insufficient for reducing anxiety. Generally this group reported moderate-high levels of anxiety. They seem to inhibit accessibility to unpleasant emotional memories and the intensity of both dominant and nondominant emotions were at the lowest level compared to the other groups. Mikulincer and Orbach (1995) named their strategy as nondifferentiated defensiveness.

Considering repression of affective memories, the study conducted by Davis and Schwartz (1987) examined the accessibility of the affective memories from childhood in four groups of people in coping styles: low anxious (low attachment anxiety, low defensiveness), repressor (low anxiety, high defensiveness), high anxious (high anxiety, low defensiveness), and defensive high anxious (high anxiety, high defensiveness). The results of this study demonstrated that repressors recalled fewer negative memories than low-anxious and high-anxious persons

and they recalled fewer positive memories than low-anxious individuals did. The authors argued that repression causes inaccessibility to negatively valenced memories and further suppression or inhibition of emotional memories. Barnier, Levin, and Maher (2004) obtained similar findings in their study. Repressors were, again, more successful in suppressing embarrassing thoughts than other individuals did. These findings have implications for the affect regulatory strategies of avoidantly attached individuals (e.g., Milkulincer & Florian, 2004) in processing of social information, although the function of defensive strategy of an avoidant person is different from a repressor (Fraley, Davis, & Shaver, 1998).

Furthermore, along with the attachment theory, there are several studies centered on the development of autobiographical memory. The study conducted by Farrar, Fasig, and Welch-Ross (1997) examined the relationship between attachment status and the emotional content of parent-child memory conversations. The results of this study demonstrated that mother-daughter dyads with insecurely attached girls were marked by relatively more negative memory talk than those with securely attached girls. Furthermore, the relationship between mothers and securely attached girls was more openness in considering the exploring the negative talks. On the contrary, the insecure dyads covered less elaborative talks of negative events. A similar study conducted by Laible and Thompson (2000) stressed the function of emotion-laden discourse between parent and child. The authors claimed that emotion-laden discourse about a child's past experiences may strengthen the accessibility of emotions and may weaken threatening aspects of these memories, especially for negative events. According to Reese (2002), attachment security does appear to have an important role in the interaction between self understanding

and autobiographical memory in children, since highly elaborative parents provide a great deal of information about shared past events, and a reminiscing model for their children. In summary, there is a reciprocal influence between autobiographical memory and attachment. In the one hand, attachment-related experiences impact the development of autobiographical memory, on the other side, autobiographical memory has an essential role in the development, maintenance, and breakdown of relationships (Conway, 2003).

In conclusion, it seems that attachment influences cognitive processes including memory processes. According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2003), the main organizing factor in working models of attachment is the attachment strategies which manage both the procedural knowledge related to the representations and the declarative knowledge about the self and the attachment figures. Working models create excitatory and inhibitory associations among the models for different attachment figures. Therefore, activation of particular memories is simplified or prevented according to congruence between models. Considering the SMS model, working models of attachment may influence the accessibility of goal-relevant knowledge by either facilitating or attenuating the access to the knowledge base. For insecure individuals, accessing attachment related knowledge may exacerbate the ongoing process; therefore, to access this knowledge is harder than that for the secure individual. Accordingly, a breakdown may occur between self-coherence and adaptive correspondence which damages narrative coherence (Conway et. al., 2000).

1.3. Overview and the Aim of the Study

Reviewed studies in both attachment and autobiographical memory suggest that attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance may predict particular properties of autobiographical memory. Accepting the past may have a crucial role in the organization of autobiographical memories. Moreover, there seems to be a strong relationship between the tendency of reminiscing about the past and various phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory. Considering the past research reviewed above following hypotheses can be proposed.

1) Main attachment dimensions, especially attachment anxiety (rather than avoidance) is significantly associated with both accepting the past and reminiscing the past.

2) Accepting the past is significantly associated with particular affective properties (positive valence, negative valence, intensity, and visceral reactions) and particular cognitive properties (narrative coherence and perspective) of autobiographical memory.

3) Attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance are systematically associated with both specific affective properties (recollection, persistence, positive valence, negative valence, intensity, visceral reactions, and past intensity) and cognitive properties (narrative coherence, perspective, vividness, rehearsal, and chronological order) of autobiographical memory.

4) Attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and their interaction (especially the combination of high anxiety and low avoidance, namely preoccupied style) predict the affective properties (e.g., recollection, persistence, positive valence, negative

valence, intensity, visceral reactions, and past intensity) of autobiographical memory.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

A total of 222 participants (127 women, 95 men) participated in the study. Data collected from three different universities in Ankara; 82 (45.1%) of the participants were students in Middle Technical University, 55 (30.2%) of them were from Hacettepe University, and 45 (24.7%) of them were from Ankara University. After controlling the accuracy of the data file (outliers, normality and linearity assumptions and missing values) 40 cases were identified as outliers and some had several missing items. Additionally, some participants did not complete all of the memory related scales that were necessary for completing the whole questionnaire. These participants were excluded from the study remaining 182 participants for the further analyses.

Of the participants, 105 (57.7%) were women, and 77 (42.3%) were men. Their age varied between 18 and 29 with a mean of 21.50 (SD=2.24). Majority of the participants were single (92%) and remaining were married (1.6%), engaged (2.2%) or living with a romantic partner (3.8%). A total of 120 (65.9%) participants reported that they spent most of their lives in a metropolis, 48 (26.4%) lived in a city, and 14 (7.7%) of them spent most of their lives in rural areas. Majority of the participants were (91.2%) were currently undergraduates in different

universities in Ankara, 12 (6.6%) of them were master's students, and 4 (2.2) of them were doctorate's students. Table 2.1. summarizes the characteristics of the sample.

Table 2.1. Sample Characteristics

	Women	Men	Participants
Age (Mean; SD)	105 (21.20; 1.99)	77 (21.92; 2.50)	182 (21.505; 2.24)
Marital Status (%)			
Married	1 (1.0% of women)	2 (2.6% of men)	3 (1.6% of total N)
Engaged	1 (1.0%)	3 (3.9%)	4 (2.2%)
Living with a partner	3 (2.9%)	4 (5.2%)	7 (3.8%)
Other	100 (95.2%)	68 (88.3%)	168 (92.3%)
Location (%)			
Metropolis	72 (68.6% of women)	48 (62.3% of men)	120 (65.9% of total N)
City	24 (22.9%)	24 (31.2%)	48 (26.4%)
Village	9 (8.6%)	5 (6.5%)	14 (7.7%)
Education Level (%)			
Undergraduate	97 (92.4%)	69 (89.6%)	166 (91.2%)
Master's student	5 (4.8%)	7 (9.1%)	12 (6.65%)
Doctorate's student	3 (2.9%)	1 (1.3%)	4 (2.2%)
University (%)			
METU	48 (45.7% of women)	34 (44.2% of men)	82 (45.1% of total N)
Hacettepe	30 (28.6%)	25 (32.5%)	55 (30.2%)
Ankara	27 (25.7%)	18 (23.4%)	45 (24.7%)

2.2. Measures

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of demographic questions and three scales, namely the Meaningful Past Questionnaire, the Autobiographical Memory Questionnaire, and the Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised scale. In the demographic questions section, the participants were asked for their sex, age, marital status, the location where they have spent most of their lives, and the name

of the school where they recently attended (see Appendix A).

2.2.1. The Meaningful Past Questionnaire

The Meaningful Past Questionnaire (MPQ) developed by Santor and Zuroff, (1994) consists of two subscales which measure conceptually different constructs: accepting the past and reminiscence about the past. Santor and Zuroff (1994) defined accepting the past as a positive representation of one's past. The concept was formulated as an ongoing process in which the person internalizes and integrates his or her past into a general past representation. People can accept their past, although they acknowledge that they could have made better choices, worked harder, or done things differently. On the other hand, reminiscing about the past was formulated as discussing or thinking about past and/or being willing to do so (Santor & Zuroff, 1994).

The psychometric properties of the MPQ were tested by Santor and Zuroff (1994). In general, the factor structure, the item-total correlations, the internal consistencies, and the correlations among the variables were obtained as suggested by the researchers. In addition to the validity and reliability analyses, the researchers also examined the predictive efficiency of accepting the past over current depression.

Santor and Zuroff also measured the reminiscing about the past to test construct validity of the MPQ. The results supported discriminant validity of the concept of the accepting the past. Additionally, in either scales, the researchers deleted the items which were highly correlated with the social desirability scale. Consequently, 27 items were selected from the item pools, 16 items were for the accepting the

past subscale, and 11 items were for the reminiscence about the past subscale. The item-total correlations ranged from .26 to .69 for accepting the past and from .20 to .54 for reminiscing the past. The Cronbach alpha values were .86 for the ‘accepting the past’ scale and .72 for the ‘reminiscing the past’ subscale (Santor & Zuroff, 1994).

2.2.1.1. A Study for the Adaptation of the MPQ: Participants

In order to test psychometric properties of the MPQ, a small scale study was conducted before the main study. University students (N = 195) aged between 17 and 28 participated to the adaptation study. Twelve participants were excluded because of the high percentage of missing responses. Hence, the study conducted with 183 participants (94 women and 89 men). 135 university students (73.8%) and 48 students who were preparing for the university entry exam (26.2%) participated in the study. The sample involves the students of the Middle East Technical University (32.8%), the universities of Hacettepe (9.3%), Ankara (12.0%), Gazi (7.7%), Bilkent (1.6%), Cankaya (2.7%), Anadolu (4.9%), and Baskent (2.7%). A small percentage of the sample was married (3.3%), whereas most of them were single (96.2%). The participants were mostly from undergraduate programs (116 persons) with a small number of them being from graduate programs (19 persons). The scores of accepting the past and reminiscing about the past did not show differences according to the universities.

The scale was translated from English into Turkish by 5 graduate students from the Middle East Technical University who are fluent in both Turkish and English. The collected items translations were evaluated by 11 graduate students from

the Middle East Technical University. The translations which were selected as the most accurate were used in the last draft. For some items, two different translations were written on the application form. Therefore, the number of items increased from 27 to 34. After factor analysis, the number of items was reduced to the same number of original questionnaire by eliminating those with two translations which took a lower loading coefficient.

Before the factor analysis, a pilot study was conducted to determine the problems concerning the language and format of the scale. Finally, following the translation and back translation procedure a scale having 34 items was formed. The accepting the past (ACPAST) subscale involved 21 items and the reminiscing about the past (REM) involved 13 items. The items from two subscales were mixed in a random order and the final format was applied to 195 students to analyze its factor structure. After the control factor loadings, 7 items were deleted and the following analyses performed on 27 items as in original scale; 16 items for accepting the past and 11 items for reminiscing about the past.

2.2.1.2. Analyses on the MPQ

The subjects completed the Meaningful Past Questionnaire and Beck Depression Inventory in the same session. In this study, of Beck Depression Inventory that was adopted by Hisli (1989) was used (cited in Savaşır & Şahin, 1997). The BDI consists of 21 items which measure affective, somatic, cognitive, and motivational symptoms of depression. It has just one factor. In the study conducted by Hisli (1989) the split-half reliability coefficient was obtained as .74 in a student sample. In the concurrent validity studies, the correlations between the BDI and other

scales for depression or for similar concepts were between .50 and .74. It was found that the BDI discriminated the depression that needed treatment with over 90% reliably (Savaşır & Şahin, 1997).

First, the data was controlled for accuracy and the assumptions of multivariate statistics. Certain items were reversed following the procedure followed by Santor and Zuroff (1994). The scores from ACPAST and REM were compared to check if there was a difference among students from different universities and between genders. No significant differences were detected in these groups.

Before the factor and reliability analyses, the item-total correlations of the scale were calculated. Items correlations coefficients were analyzed for each subscale separately. Analyses showed that the correlation coefficients of the 11th item (16th item of the total scale) of ACPAST with both ACPAST subscale and total scale were below .20. Therefore, this item was excluded from following analysis. One possibility is that the problem with this item arises from the translation. The other items' item-total correlations ranged from .33 to .70 for the ACPAST subscale and from .39 to .67 for the REM subscale.

A principle component analysis was run to test the factor structure of the MPQ. The factorability of R assumption was met, since the KMO and Bartlett's test gave the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy was .79. That is, the data were good enough for the factor analysis. Then, to determine the number of factors, Kaiser Criterion and scree plot were used. Initially there were nine factors having eigenvalues higher than 1 explaining 64.25% of the total variance. Scree plot

examination showed that two or three factors were adequate for the factor analysis.

Both two and three factor solutions were tested and two-factor solution with the varimax rotation yielded the best interpretable solution. Majority of the items loaded in the expected dimension. Two factors accounted for the 33.59% of the total variance. First and second factors explained the 20.12% and 13.47% of the total variance respectively. Factor loadings of the items ranged from .34 and .67. The results of factor analysis are given in Table 2.2.

As expected, depression was significantly correlated with the ACPAST ($r = -.56$, $p < .01$), but not with the REM. However, unlike Santor and Zuroff's finding, it was found that ACPAST and REM were significantly correlated ($r = .27$, $p < .01$) in this study. Although the REM was significantly correlated with the ACPAST, the factor pattern suggested that that REM and ACPAST represent the two different constructs in the Turkish sample.

For the reliability analysis, Cronbach's alpha values for the ACPAST and REM were examined. ACPAST and REM subscales demonstrated the following internal consistency values (Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$; $.75$ respectively). In addition to the internal consistency, the scales were tested by split-half reliability technique. As a result of the analysis, both ACPAST demonstrated good alpha values for two parts (Cronbach $\alpha = .79$ for part 1 and Cronbach $\alpha = .68$ for part 2). Similarly, the split-half reliability values for REM was adequate (Cronbach $\alpha = .71$ for part 1 and Cronbach $\alpha = .62$ for part 2). The analyses of internal consistency and split-half reliability indicated that the measure was reliable in the Turkish sample.

Table 2.2. Factor Loadings of the Meaningful Past Questionnaire

Factor Loadings of the Meaningful Past Questionnaire		
Scale Items		ACPAST REM
Accepting the Past (ACPAST)		
A4. Gerçek anlamda mutlu olmam için geçmişimdeki bazı şeyleri düzeltmem, yerli yerine koymam gerekiyor.		,715
A7. Önceki kimi kişisel yaşantılarımı düşünmek hala çok zor.		,684
A3. Bazen hayatımı hiç yaşama şansını bulamadığım hissine kapılıyorum.		,662
A5. Her şeyi hesaba kattığımda, geçmişteki tercihlerimle ilgili içim rahat.		,651
A9. Yaşamımla ilgili kabullenmekte zorlandığım şeyler var.		,645
A12. Geçmişimde beni korkutan şeyler var.		,609
A1. Geçmişim hakkında düşünmek bana mutluluktan çok acı verir.		,598
A16. Şimdiye kadar yaptığım şeylerden genellikle tatmin olmuş hissederim.		,562
A13. Geçmişe dönüp baktığımda doyum hissedyorum.		,528
A6. Hayatımda, asla kabullenemeyeceğim hayal kırıklıklarım var.		,517
A2. Geçmişte yaptığım şeylerden bahsederken kendimi rahat hissederim.		,491
A8. Genel olarak baktığımda, yaşamımın geldiği noktadan memnunum.		,480
A15. Çok uzun zaman önce olmuş şeyler için üzülmem.		,463
A10. Çok anlamlı bir hayat sürmedim.		,386
R3. Geçmişimi anımsamayı seviyorum.		,356
A14. Bazı çocukluk yaşantılarım hakkında halen kızgınlık hissedyorum.		,349
Reminiscing about the Past (REM)		
R8. Geçmişimdeki yaşantılarımı pek sık düşünmem.		,672
R9. Geçmişimdeki hem iyi, hem kötü yaşantılarımdan mümkün olduğunca çok şey hatırlamaya çalışırım.		,670
R5. Geçmiş yaşantılarım benim için önemli olsa da, onlar hakkında düşünmemeyi tercih ederim.		,640
R10. Geçmişimi ne reddedyorum, ne de kabulleniyorum. Sadece geçmişimi geçmişte bıraktım.		,631
R7. Geçmiş yaşantılarım hakkında sıklıkla düşünürüm.		,541
R4. Geçmişimin zorlu dönemleriyle uğraşmak yerine onları görmezden gelmeyi tercih ederim.		,519
R2. Geçmişimin zorlu dönemlerini görmezden gelirim.	.303	,451
R6. Geçmişim hakkında düşünmeye dair hiç isteğim yok.		,450
R1. Geçmişteki şeylerden çok bugünkü şeylerden bahsetmeyi tercih ederim.		,339
R11. Geçmişimdeki yaşantılarımı sık sık başkalarına anlatırım.		,336
Cronbach's Alpha		.85
		.75

2.2.1.3. Analyses on the MPQ in Present Study

In the present study, first the items of the MPQ were reevaluated by the back-translation method and then the 11th item of ACPAST which was not loaded on any factor in the previous study was translated into Turkish again. The particular items were reversed as in the original study. A principle component analysis for the two factors was performed with varimax rotation. KMO and Bartlett's test indicated that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy was .83. The

explained variance by two factors was 35.78% of total variance. Similar to the previous study, it was observed that the items were loaded on the expected factors with high loadings. After the change in translation, the problem related to the 11th item of ACPAST was solved. Item loadings varied between .32 and .79. Internal consistency coefficients of the MPQ (Cronbach $\alpha = .84$) and split half reliability were satisfactory (.84). These values for the reminiscing subscale were .86 and .76. The Meaningful Past Questionnaire can be seen in Appendix B.

2.2.2. Autobiographical Memory Questionnaire

Both the content and retention of memory for emotional memories have been extensively investigated in previous studies. However, the phenomenological properties of memories were not included by these studies. Talarico, Labar, and Rubin (2004) attempted to identify the phenomenological properties of emotional memories and developed the Autobiographical Memory Questionnaire (AMQ) considering contemporary memory theories that emphasize the conscious experience of remembering.

Talarico et al., (2004) aimed to assess following properties of autobiographical memory via the AMQ: Belief/confidence, vividness, field/observer, narrative coherence, specific/general, rehearsal, same emotion/intensity, and visceral reactions. These properties given by these authors are described briefly in the following section.

Recollection: Recollection refers to the mental status during remembering a memory. It consists of a sense of reliving and traveling back in time.

Recollection of a memory is different from knowing what happened.

Belief/confidence: Individuals are generally certain about their memories and they believe that their memories are a report of the real events. At the same time, interestingly, they are generally willing to admit that their memories may fail in a reflection of reality. In the AMQ, the items related to the belief/confidence measures to what degree the participant is confident in his/her memory.

Field/observer (Perspective): Recent studies have been concentrated on whether individuals see the memory through his/her own eyes (field) or through the eyes of an outside observer. Thus this aspect was included in the measure

Vividness: Vividness is usually defined as the amount of perceptual or sensory details. The items of the AMQ for this property measure the degree to which participants remember the visual, auditory, or place-related details.

Specificity: Specificity of a memory refers to whether the memory is based on details specific to one's life, not on general knowledge that most people have.

Persistence: The property of persistence is related to the stability of a memory in emotional intensity and valence.

Narrative Coherence: Narrative coherence refers to whether a memory is recalled as a unified coherent story or as fragmentary isolated details.

Visceral Reactions: Visceral reactions to the recalled memories consist of physical reactions to an emotional memory, such as palpitation of the hearth.

In the present study, three questions taken from the Er and Ucar's (2004) study were added to the AMQ to measure the importance of the memory for the participants, intensity of emotion the participants felt during the time the event was happening, and whether the participants remembered their memories in a chronological order. One item was added to the scale for all new variables. The original AMQ consists of 23 items which measures thirteen phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory. In the current study, three items and three properties were added to the scale. Each property was measured via one or three questions. Participants showed their agreement on a 7-point scale with 1= never and 7=always/completely (see Appendix C).

2.2.2.1. Factor structure of autobiographical memory questionnaire

In order the test underlying constructs and factor structure of the AMQ, the principle component analysis was performed on 25 items of the AMQ (the item for *memory age* is not included in the analyses). The results indicated that the items which measure negative valence and positive valence did not belong to the universe of the items of the AMQ. Therefore, two items which measure positive and negative valence are excluded in following steps.

After the elimination of the items of negative and positive valence, the KMO and Bartlett's test performed on 23 items and the test produced the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy as .91 which means that factorability of R

assumption was satisfactory. Kaiser Criterion suggested 5 factors whose eigenvalues were higher than 1 and these five factors explained 67.12% of the total variance. On the other hand, scree plot examination showed that two or three factors were good for factor analysis.

PAF with varimax rotation was performed for both two and three factors successively. The results of the PAF in which 23 items were forced to three factors showed that a few of items loaded to the third factor and this was not enough to construct a factor. Because the factor pattern of three-factor structure is not interpretable and two-factor structure is theoretically more sensible, another factor analysis was run. As a result of PAF with varimax rotation, two factors explained 51.12% of total variance. The first factor is accounted for 41.18% and the second factor is accounted for 9.94% of the total variance. Factor loading of the items are high (ranging from .32 to .78) Items of distinct properties of autobiographical memory loaded to the expected factors. The items of each property of autobiographical memory were distributed to the factors as following: Recollection (Item 1, 16, and 19), narrative coherence (Item 2 and 4), perspective (Item 3), specificity (Item 17), linguistic (Item 18), belief in accuracy (Item 22), chronological order (Item 23), and importance (Item 24) loaded to the first factor and it is labeled as the *cognitive aspect*. Two items of vividness (13, 15) also loaded to cognitive factor, whereas Item 14 loaded to the affective factor. Intensity (Item 9), visceral reaction to the memory (Item 10, 11, and 12), past intensity (Item 25), rehearsal (Item 20 and 21), and persistence (Item 5 and 6) loaded to the second factor and this factor is labeled as *affective aspect*. The factor loadings of the items were given Table 3.6.

Table 3.6. Factor Loadings of the AMQ

Factor Loadings of the Autobiographical Memory Questionnaire		COGNIT AFFECT	
Scale Items			
Cognitive Aspect			
AMQ2. Bu olayı anımsarken, anı aklıma kelimeler ya da resimler şeklinde <i>akıcı, tüm bir hikaye</i> olarak gelir; kopuk gerçekler, gözlem ya da bir sahne gibi değil.	.776	.332	
AMQ19. Bu olayı anımsarken, sadece ne olduğunu bilmekten ziyade olayı gerçekten hatırlarım.	.738		
AMQ4. Bu anı kopuk, kayıplar içeren parçalar halinde aklıma gelir.	.715		
AMQ1. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayı yeniden yaşıyormuş gibi hissedirim.	.706	.521	
AMQ13. Bu olayı anımsarken, olay gözümde canlanır.	.683	.440	
AMQ16. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayın olduğu zamana geri yolculuk yapıyormuş gibi hissedirim.	.671	.523	
AMQ23. Bu olayı zamansal sırası içinde (öncesini, olay sırasını, sonrasını bilerek) hatırlarım.	.641		
AMQ22. Belleğimdeki bu olayın anımsadığım şekilde gerçekleştiğine inanıyorum. Olmayan herhangi bir şeyi hayal etmiş ya da uydurmuş değilim.	.611		
AMQ3. Bu olayı anımsarken, bir izleyici gözüyle değil, kendi gözlerimle görüyordum gibi hissedirim.	.604		
AMQ15. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayın nasıl bir <i>ortamda</i> geçtiğini hatırlarım.	.584	.486	
AMQ18. Bu olayı anımsarken, bu anı aklıma <i>kelime kelime</i> gelir.	.530	.464	
AMQ17. Bu anım, pek çok insanın bileceğini beklediğim genel bilgilere değil, <i>hayatma özgü</i> ayrıntılara dayanır.	.428		
AMQ24. Bu olayın sizin için <i>önemini</i> belirtiniz.	.392	.397	
Affective Aspect			
AMQ6. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayın olduğu zaman hissettiğim duyguları aynı güçte hissedirim.	.595	.523	
AMQ5. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayın olduğu zaman hissettiğim <i>aynı duyguları</i> hissedirim.	.581	.519	
AMQ10. Bu olayı anımsarken, <i>kalbimin</i> küt küt attığını ya da hızlandığını hissedirim.	.798		
AMQ11. Bu olayı anımsarken, <i>terlediğimi, sırlı sıklam</i> olduğumu hissedirim.	.769		
AMQ12. Bu olayı anımsarken, <i>gerginleşirim</i> ya da <i>midem</i> kilitlenir, kasılma ya da bulantılar hissedirim.	.741		
AMQ9. Bu olayı anımsarken, hissettiğim duygular <i>oldukça yoğun</i> dur.	.473	.695	
AMQ14. Bu olayı anımsarken, olay <i>kulaklarımda</i> yankılanır.	.370	.589	
AMQ20. Bu olay olduğundan beri, olay hakkında <i>düşünmekteyim ya da konuşmaktayım</i> .	.328	.423	
AMQ25. Bu <i>olayın olduğu an</i> hissettiğim duygular çok <i>yoğundu</i> .	.388		
AMQ21. Bu anı, ben onu hatırlamaya çalışmadığım halde, <i>aklıma birdenbire geldi</i> ..	.324		
Cronbach's Alpha	.90	.84	

2.2.3. Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised

The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) scale is the revised version of the Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (ECR) which was developed by Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998). These researchers extensively examined and collected the scales frequently used in the measurement of adult attachment and run factor analysis using 323 items obtained from these scales. The results of the factor analyses yielded two overarching dimensions: attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety. Then, they developed the ECR including two subscales measuring these two dimensions. Each subscale consists of 18 items.

The ECR-R is the revised version of the ECR that was developed by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) on the basis of item response theory. In classical scale development techniques, it is assumed that measurement precision is constant across the entire trait range. However, Item Response Theory (IRT) models recognize potential differences in measurement precision among people. Therefore, Fraley and his colleagues (2000) revised the ECR by utilizing the IRT technique which produces more reliable scales than traditional techniques can do.

Fraley and his colleagues (2000) analyzed the pool of items collected by Brennan and his colleagues (1998) and they selected the most discriminative items. The ECR-R also consists of 36 items; half of them are for attachment avoidance dimension and the other half is for anxiety dimension.

The ECR-R was adapted into Turkish by Selçuk, Günaydin, Sümer, and Uysal (2005). In this study, the items are loaded in two factors as did in the

original study. The internal consistency of attachment avoidance and anxiety subscales was found to be satisfactory (.90 and .86, respectively). Selçuk et al. also found that the ECR-R Turkish version has high test-retest reliability. Coefficients were .81 for avoidance subscale and .82 for anxiety subscale. In the present study, it was observed that the two-factor structure distinguished the items consistent with original study. Two factors explained 32.83% of the total variance. The internal consistency of the ECR-R was high (Cronbach $\alpha = .88$) similar to split-half reliability (Cronbach $\alpha = .86$ for part 1 and Cronbach $\alpha = .86$ for part 2). The anxiety subscale obtained a score of .86 and the avoidance subscale obtained .86 for internal consistency (Appendix D).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Descriptive Statistics

As seen in Table 3.1, using 7 points scales, participants reported higher levels of belief in the accuracy of their autobiographical memories ($M= 6.57$). The participants reported that they recalled their autobiographical memories in time order ($M= 5.76$), these memories were important to them ($M= 5.77$) and specific to their own lives ($M= 5.20$). The level of the visceral reactions raised by recall of emotional memories generally was low ($M= 2.54$). The participant usually reported that they perceived their autobiographical from their own perspective rather than viewpoint of an observer ($M= 5.39$) and they felt as reliving during remembering these events ($M= 5.32$). Women reported higher scores ($M= 5.36$) than men did ($M= 4.96$) in intensity ($t= -2.185, p<.05$). In rehearsal, again a gender difference was observed ($t= -2.026, p<.05$); women more likely reported that ($M= 4.14, SD=1.16$) they thought or talked about the reported event after it had occurred and that the memory for this event came their mind without initiative effort than men did ($M= 3.79, SD=1.08$). Lastly, women perceived their memories more important ($M= 5.92, SD=.92$) than men ($M= 5.57, SD=.96$); gender difference in importance was significant ($t= -2.464, p<.05$).

Table 3.1. Descriptive statistics of study variables

Variables	Participants			Men			Women		
	M	SD	Observed Range	M	SD	Observed Range	M	SD	Observed Range
RECOLLECTION	5.32	1.07	4.89	5.20	1.12	4.78	5.41	1.02	4.89
NARRATIVE	5.11	1.12	5.33	5.05	1.15	4.33	5.16	1.10	5.33
PERSPECTIVE	5.39	1.26	6.00	5.39	1.33	5.67	5.38	1.22	6.00
PERSISTENCE	4.66	1.27	5.83	4.56	1.32	5.50	4.72	1.23	5.83
POSITIVE VAL	3.52	1.55	6.00	3.68	1.59	6.00	3.40	1.52	6.00
NEGATIVE VAL	4.09	1.61	6.00	3.97	1.59	6.00	4.19	1.63	6.00
INTENSITY	5.19	1.22	5.00	4.96	1.21	5.00	5.36	1.21	5.00
VISCERAL	2.54	1.05	4.89	2.45	1.00	4.89	2.60	1.09	4.67
VIVIDNES	4.90	1.05	4.67	4.88	1.06	4.67	4.92	1.04	4.44
SPECIFITY	5.20	1.36	5.33	5.09	1.50	5.33	5.29	1.24	4.33
LINGUIST	4.21	1.56	6.00	4.21	1.63	6.00	4.21	1.51	5.67
REHEARSAL	3.99	1.13	6.00	3.79	1.08	6.00	4.14	1.16	4.67
BELIEF	6.57	.66	3.33	6.53	.71	3.33	6.60	.62	2.33
CHRONOLOJY	5.76	1.12	5.00	5.75	1.12	5.00	5.76	1.13	5.00
IMPORTANCE	5.77	.95	4.00	5.57	.96	3.67	5.92	.92	4.00
PAST INTENS	6.07	.99	4.33	5.93	1.00	4.00	6.18	.95	4.33
ANXIETY	3.69	.93	4.89	3.68	.91	3.83	3.70	.95	4.89
AVOIDANCE	2.72	.90	4.06	2.61	.82	3.33	2.80	.95	4.00
ACCEPTING	4.80	1.02	4.94	4.79	1.08	4.56	4.82	.98	4.94
REMINISCING	4.67	.94	4.45	4.61	1.04	4.18	4.72	.87	4.09

(ACCEPTING = Accepting the Past, REMINISCING = Reminiscing the Past, NARRATIVE = Narrative Coherence, POSITIVE VAL = Positive Valence, NEGATIVE VAL = Negative Valence, VISCERAL = Visceral Reactions, LINGUIST = Linguistic, PAST INTENS = Past Intensity)

3.2. Analysis on Hypothesis 1, 2, and 3.

The associations among the autobiographical memory properties, accepting the past, reminiscing about the past, attachment anxiety, and avoidance were first examined by calculating the zero order correlations.

3.2.1. Correlations among the main variables

In the present study, it is hypothesized that accepting the past would be significantly associated with particular affective properties (positive valence, negative valence, visceral reactions) and particular cognitive properties (narrative coherence, perspective) of autobiographical memory. Moreover, it is argued that main attachment dimensions, especially attachment anxiety (rather than avoidance) would be significantly associated with both accepting the past and reminiscing the past, and both specific affective properties (recollection, persistence, positive valence, negative valence, intensity, visceral reactions, and past intensity) and cognitive properties (narrative coherence, perspective, vividness, rehearsal, and chronological order) of autobiographical memory.

As presented in Table 3.2, correlational analyses indicated that accepting the past was significantly correlated with the perspective subscale ($r=.20, p<.01$), positive valence ($r=.26, p<.001$), negative valence ($r=-.29, p<.001$), and the visceral reactions ($r=-.23, p<.001$). Accepting the past was also positively correlated with reminiscing the past ($r=.18, p<.05$). Reminiscing the past was significantly correlated with the recollection ($r=.23, p<.01$), the narrative coherence ($r=.22, p<.01$), the persistence ($r=.23, p<.01$), positive valence ($r=.23, p<.01$), negative valence ($r=-.27, p<.001$), the intensity ($r=.18, p<.05$), the vividness ($r=.17, p<.05$), the rehearsal ($r=.17, p<.05$), belief ($r=.16, p<.05$), chronological order ($r=.26, p<.001$), and importance of the memory ($r=.18, p<.05$).

Both attachment anxiety and avoidance were correlated with accepting the past ($r = -.36, p < .001$; $r = -.22, p < .001$ respectively). Results of Pearson's two-tailed correlation showed that there were significant correlations between attachment anxiety and two phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory; the vividness and visceral reactions ($r = .16, p < .05$; $r = .18, p < .05$ respectively).

Table 3.2. The correlations among the main variables

Variables	ANXIETY	AVOIDANCE	ACCEPTING	REMINISCING
REMINISCING	-	-	-	-
ACCEPTING	-	-	-	,184*
AVOIDANCE	-	-	-,219**	-,090
ANXIETY	-	,330***	-,359***	-,102
RECOLLECTION	,050	-,104	,090	,230**
NARRATIVE	-,010	-,052	,117	,225**
PERSPECTIVE	,065	,008	,199**	,121
PERSISTENCE	,085	,025	,065	,230**
POSITIVE VAL	-,058	,051	,258***	,230**
NEGATIVE VAL	,105	-,081	-,287***	-,273***
INTENSITY	,051	-,092	-,052	,185*
VISCERAL	,177*	-,029	-,234***	-,042
VIVIDNES	,156*	-,056	,039	,167*
SPECIFITY	,036	-,027	-,065	,071
LINGUIST	,094	-,012	-,069	,114
REHEARSAL	,079	-,040	-,017	,173*
BELIEF	,003	-,098	,015	,162*
CHRONOLOJY	-,084	-,102	,107	,261***
IMPORTANCE	-,072	-,120	-,049	,185*
PAST INTENS	-,041	-,094	-,079	-,035

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

(ACCEPTING = Accepting the Past, REMINISCING = Reminiscing the Past,

NARRATIVE = Narrative Coherence, POSITIVE VAL = Positive Valence, NEGATIVE VAL = Negative Valence, VISCERAL = Visceral Reactions, LINGUIST = Linguistic, PAST INTENS = Past Intensity)

3.3. Hypothesis 4: Predicting autobiographical memory from attachment dimensions

In the current study, it is hypothesized that attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and their interaction (especially the combination of high anxiety and low avoidance, namely preoccupied style) predict the affective properties (e.g., recollection, persistence, positive valence, negative valence, intensity, visceral reactions, and past intensity) of autobiographical memory.

Hierarchical (sequential) regression analyses were performed to test if attachment anxiety, avoidance, and their interaction predict the phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory. In these analyses gender and age were entered in the first step to control for their effects on the dependent variables. In step 2, attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and their interaction were entered to the equation in all of these analyses.

The regression analyses indicated that although gender had a significant predictive effect on rehearsal, intensity, and importance ($\beta = .15$; $\beta = .16$; $\beta = .18$ respectively), the contribution of attachment dimensions to the equations was not significant. The details are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Predicting phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory from attachment dimensions

	REHEARSAL		INTENSITY		IMPORTANCE	
	R ²	β	R ²	β	R ²	β
Step 1	.024		.026		.033	
1. Gender		.155*		.161*		.180*
2. Age		.039		.001		-.002
Step 2	.024		.024		.033	
1. Gender		.161		.172		.186
2. Age		.040		-.006		-.039
3. Anxiety		.122		.100		-.029
4. Avoidance		-.097		-.147		-.142
5. Interaction		.099		.059		.110
Total Variance R ²	.048				.066	

* *t* is significant at the .05

As presented in Table 3.4, in the other regressions, although gender and age did not have a significant effect on the phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory, in the second steps, attachment anxiety predicted negative valence, visceral reactions, and the vividness ($\beta = .18$; $\beta = .21$; $\beta = .20$ respectively); attachment avoidance negatively predicted recollection ($\beta = -.16$); and the interaction of attachment dimensions predicted specificity and vividness of the memories ($\beta = .17$; $\beta = .18$ respectively).

Although the contribution of the second block to the equation were insignificant in the hierarchical regression analyses for predicting specificity, recollection, and negative valence, in predicting visceral reactions and vividness, the changes in R² were .048 and .065 respectively indicating that almost 5% of the variance in visceral reactions and 6% of the variance in vividness are accounted uniquely by

attachment anxiety, avoidance, and their interaction.

Table 3.4. Predicting phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory from attachment dimensions

	VISCERAL		VIVIDNESS		SPECIFICITY		RECOLLEC		NEGVAL	
	R ²	β	R ²	β	R ²	β	R ²	β	R ²	β
Step 1	.005		.006		.016		.015		.020	
1. Gender		.073		.006		.089		.087		.087
2. Age		.010		-.077		.103		-.072		.127
Step 2	.048		.065		.033		.035		.034	
1. Gender		.089		.013		.087		.097		.099
2. Age		.046		-.075		.096		-.088		.138
3. Anxiety		.213**		.198*		.081		.092		.177*
4. Avoidance		-.097		-.144		-.057		-.165*		-.130
5. Interaction		-.075		.175*		.168*		.111		.053
Total Variance R ²	.053		.071		.049		.050		.054	

** *t* is significant at the .01

* *t* is significant at the .05

(RECOLLEC = Recollection, NEGVAL = Negative Valence)

The interaction of attachment dimensions also predicted specificity and vividness of the memories ($\beta = .17$; $\beta = .17$ respectively). As seen in Figure 3.1, in contrast to the expectations, the analysis related to interaction effect indicated that secure (the combination of both avoidance and anxiety) did not significantly differ from the fearfuls (the combination of both high avoidance and anxiety) on specificity. However, dismissings (the combination of high avoidance and low anxiety) had the lowest level of specificity followed by preoccupieds (the combination of low avoidance and high anxiety ($\beta = .25$)). This interaction suggested that those with dismissing attachment had the lowest specificity about their memories as compared to those with both secure and fearful attachment. Furthermore significant interaction effect on vividness also yielded a similar pattern, as seen in Figure 3.2. Similar to this pattern, those with high avoidance and low anxiety (i.e., dismissings) reported

lower levels of vividness than those with both high avoidance and anxiety (i.e., fearfuls) ($\beta = .38$). The simple slope on the low avoidance was not significant.

Figure 3.1. The interaction pattern in predicting the specificity

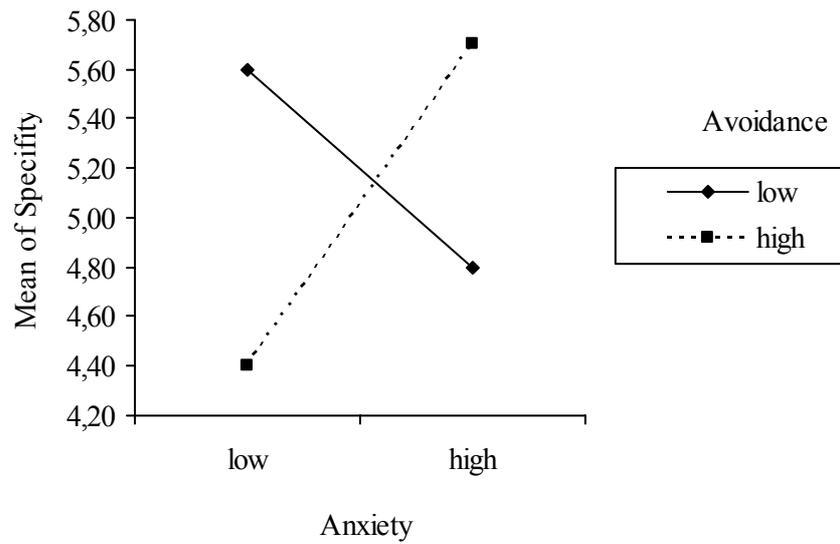
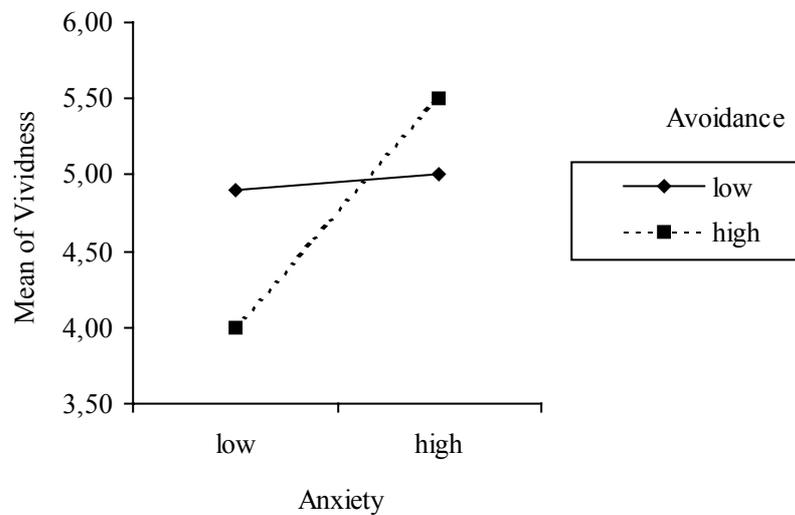


Figure 3.2. The interaction pattern in predicting the vividness



3.3.1. Predicting cognitive and affective aspects of autobiographical memory from attachment dimensions

Some of the identified phenomenological properties in the AMQ including perspective, positive and negative valence, intensity, specificity, linguistic, belief, chronology, importance, and past intensity are measured by just one item. In order to deal with this limitation, factor analysis was performed on 23 items of the AMQ.

Considering the results of the factor analyses on the properties of the AMQ that yielded two basic dimensions tapping the cognitive and affective aspects of autobiographic memories, regressions were also repeated on these two dimensions. Gender and age are entered to the equation in Step 1 and these demographic variables did not significantly contributed to the equation in following hierarchical regressions. Attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and their interaction were entered to the equations in Step 2. In predicting affective properties of autobiographical memory, attachment anxiety positively predicted affective aspect of autobiographical memory ($\beta = .19, t = 2.47, p < .05$) (see Table 3.5).

Moreover, it was observed that the interaction between attachment anxiety and avoidance had a significant effect on cognitive aspect of autobiographical memory at marginal range ($\beta = .14, t = 1.862, p < .10$). Individuals with high anxiety and high avoidance (i.e., fearful attachment group) are marked by high scores in cognitive properties of autobiographical memory compared to the individuals with high avoidance and low anxiety (i.e., dismissive attachment) ($\beta = .24$). The interaction pattern is presented in Figure 3.3.

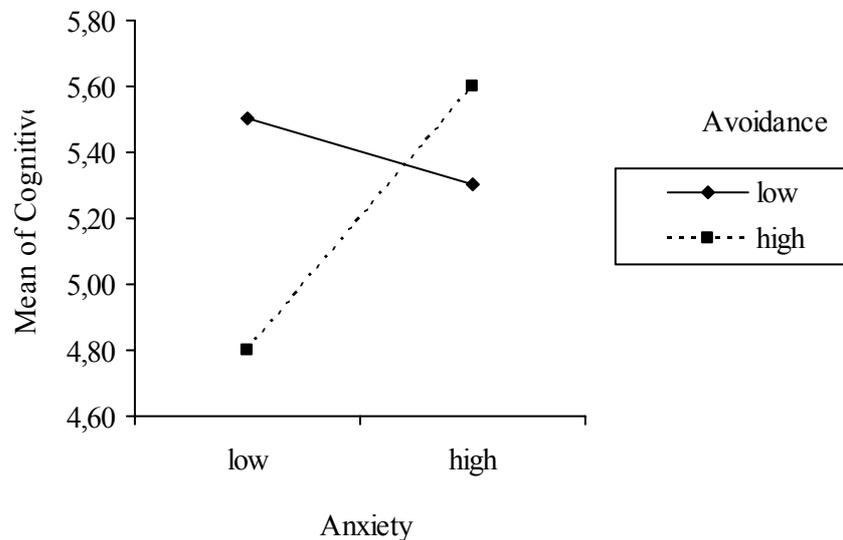
Table 3.5. Predicting affective and cognitive aspect of autobiographical memory from attachment dimensions

	AFFECTIVE ASPECT		COGNITIVE ASPECT	
	R ²	β	R ²	β
Step 1	.014		.006	
1. Gender		.115		.060
2. Age		-.015		-.043
Step 2	.038		.041	
1. Gender		.124		.067
2. Age		.001		-.058
3. Anxiety		.195**		.090
4. Avoidance		-.116		-.141
5. Interaction		.066		.139*
Total Variance R ²	.052		.047	

* t is significant at the .10

** t is significant at the .05

Figure 3.3. The interaction pattern in predicting the cognitive properties of autobiographical memory



3.4. Predictive Power of Accepting the Past

Hierarchical (sequential) regression analyses were performed to test if accepting the past predicts the phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory. In these analyses gender and age were entered in the first step to control for their effects on the dependent variables. Accepting the past was entered to the equation in the second step in all of these analyses. The results of the regressions are presented in Table 3.6.

The regression analysis on rehearsal showed that although gender had a significant effect in the first step ($\beta = .15$, $t = 2.078$, $p < .05$), accepting the past did not predict rehearsal after controlling age and gender.

In the other regressions, although gender and age did not have a significant effect on the accepting the past, in the second steps, accepting the past predicted positive and negative valence, viewpoint of participants (perspective) during remembering the memory, and the visceral reactions ($\beta = .26$, $\beta = -.29$, $\beta = .20$, $\beta = -.23$, respectively). These results mostly supported the hypotheses of the current study except the expected predictive effect on narrative coherence.

The change in R^2 at the second step of hierarchical regression for negative valence was .084 which indicates that 8% of total variance in negative valence is accounted uniquely by accepting the past. In the hierarchical regression analysis for positive valence, R^2 change was .066 and 7% of total variance is explained by unique contribution of accepting the past. In predicting perspective and visceral reactions, the changes in R^2 were .04 and .055 respectively which indicate that almost

4% and 5% of total variance is accounted for uniquely by the inclusion of accepting the past.

Table 3.6. Predicting the phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory from accepting the past

	INTENS		REHEAR		PERSPECT		VISCERAL		NEGVAL		POSVAL	
	R ²	β	R ²	β	R ²	β	R ²	β	R ²	β	R ²	β
Step 1	.026		.024		.005		.005		.020		.013	
1. Gender		.161*		.155*		-.015		.073		.087		-.101
2. Age		.001		.039		-.070		.010		.127		-.070
Step 2	.003		.000		.040		.055		.084		.067	
1. Gender		.162		.156		-.018		.077		.092		-.106
2. Age		.002		.039		-.072		.012		-.072		-.072
3. Accept		-.054		-.019		.200**		-.235***		-.289***		.260***
Total Variance R ²	.029		.024		.045		.060		.104		.080	

*** *t* is significant at the .001

** *t* is significant at the .01

* *t* is significant at the .05

(INTENS = Intensity, REHEAR = Rehearsal, PERSPECT = Perspective, VISCERAL = Visceral Reactions, NEGVAL = Negative Valence, POSVAL = Positive Valence)

3.5. Attachment dimensions and accepting the past

Two regression analyses were conducted to test the power of attachment dimensions in predicting accepting the past and the reminiscing the past. In these analyses age and gender were entered in the first step to control for their effects on dependent variables. Attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and their interaction were entered in the second step. As seen in Table 3.7, in the first regression, although age significantly predicted reminiscing the past ($\beta = -.17, t$

= -2.257, $p < .05$), attachment dimensions and their interaction did not have significant predictive effect in the second step. In the second regression analyses, however, both demographic variables did not have significant effect in the first step. In the second step attachment anxiety negatively predicted accepting the past ($\beta = -.33$, $t = -4.445$, $p < .001$). Almost 15% of the variance in accepting past was explained in the second regression equation. The interaction between the anxiety and avoidance did not have a significant effect.

Table 3.7. Predicting reminiscing and accepting the past from attachment dimensions

	REMINISCING		ACCEPTING	
	R ²	β	R ²	β
Step 1	.031		.000	
1. Gender		.033		.016
2. Age		-.168*		.007
Step 2	.040		.147	
1. Gender		.034		.019
2. Age		.215*		-.080
3. Anxiety		-.105		-.333***
4. Avoidance		.101		-.126
5. Interaction		.120		.021
Total Variance R ²	.071		.147	

*** t is significant at the .001

** t is significant at the .01

* t is significant at the .05

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The main findings of the present study are discussed with regards to the research questions. Specifically, the central aim of the current study was to examine the effects of attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance and accepting the past on phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory. In the following sections, the findings are discussed on the basis of previous studies and then the limitations of this study are discussed considering the order of the analyses in testing the hypotheses.

4.1. Impact of Attachment on Properties of Autobiographical Memory

A critical finding of this study is that attachment anxiety consistently predicted *affective aspect* of autobiographical memory and *visceral reactions* to emotional memories signifying hyperactivating characteristics of high attachment anxiety (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004; Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995). As mentioned previously, the affect regulation strategies are characterized by functioning of the attachment system and these strategies vary across different attachment styles (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Hyperactivating strategies are marked by recurrent proximity seeking attempts, anxious attention to the attachment figure,

and overwhelming negative emotions and thoughts. Individuals with high attachment anxiety tend to focus on the stressful situation, concentrate on negative thoughts, and use emotion-focused coping strategies rather than striving to diminish stress (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002^a). The chronic activation of attachment system, consistent concern on threats, and anxious attention on negative thought and emotions in hyperactivating strategies (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003) seem to be reason for the overemphasized affective components of a memory and exaggerated visceral reactions to the emotional memories.

The results demonstrated that attachment anxiety has a predictive effect on *negative valence*. This result was consistent with the study conducted by Mikulincer and Orbach (1995) which indicated that the cognitive accessibility of emotional memories differs in different attachment styles. In this study, it was found that anxious-ambivalent adults showed the highest accessibility to sadness and anxiety memories compared with individuals from other attachment styles. Mikulincer (1998) examined attachment differences in self appraisals and it was observed that anxious-ambivalent participants tended to overemphasize their personal deficiencies and imperfections, to make negative self-attributes for describing themselves, to show high accessibility for negative self-attributes, and to respond fast for endorsing negative self-attributes. The study conducted by Tagini and his colleagues (2004) also indicated that the preoccupied participant's memories reported in the AAI session were negatively valenced (cited in Conway et. al., 2004). According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2002), hyperactivating strategies of anxious individuals lead to access negative memories and automatic activation of negative emotions.

In addition to negative valence and visceral reactions, attachment anxiety significantly predicted the *vividness* which refers to what degree contextual details of a memory including visual and auditory components are remembered. The study conducted by Rubin and Kozin (1984) showed that “emotion provoking” memories are well-recalled (p.92). Hyperactivating strategies are expected to strengthen the emotion provoking memories for individuals with high attachment anxiety. Individuals with high attachment anxiety seem to experience more physical reactions during recall of an emotional memory, to recall generally negatively charged memories, and to remember those memories with more detail than other individuals do. These attachment patterns, most probably, indicate different orientations of the relative balance adaptive correspondence and self-coherence (Conway et al., 2004). These differences may signify the individual differences in the relative importance of cognition and emotion in guiding behavior (Collins & Allard, 2001). Anxious (preoccupied) persons may heavily focus on emotional cues, while avoidant adults may tend to attend to cognitive cues.

Similar to the predictive effect of anxiety, the interaction effect shows that the memories of individuals with high attachment anxiety and high avoidance, namely fearful attachment are more vivid than the memories of individuals with low anxiety and high avoidance, namely dismissive attachment. The affect regulation strategies of fearful attachment comprise proximity seeking attempts, but also doubt and suspicion about the others. Therefore, their attachment systems may remain activated, although their behavioral strategies imply deactivation (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002^b) and neither of the major secondary regulation strategies (hyperactivation or deactivation) achieves their implicit goal (Shaver &

Mikulincer, 2002^b). It seems that, in spite of the opposing patterns of the behavioral strategies, the hyperactivation of the attachment system makes fearful individuals fragile against emotional cues and lead to recall memories vividly due to this sensitivity to the emotional cues. Comparing with fearful individuals, lower scores of dismissive individuals indicate, once again, the effect of deactivating strategies on the memory system. The difference between dismissing attachment's deactivating strategies and fearful attachment's contrasting tendencies in the secondary strategies manifests itself in cognitive aspect of autobiographical memory. When the marginal significant effect of interaction was examined, it was observed that fearful attachment is marked by higher scores in cognitive aspect. That is, avoidant individuals are successful in control and repression of emotional component of a memory via efficient deactivating strategies, whereas fearful individuals are not able to prevent the activation of attachment system and the spread of this activation.

The significant difference between the combination of high avoidance-high anxiety, namely fearful attachment style and the combination of high avoidance-low anxiety, namely dismissive attachment style in subjective specificity of recalled memories is an intriguing result of the current study. The fearful participants more likely reported that their memories were based on details specific to their lives, not on general knowledge that most people could have than dismissive participants did. Shaver and Mikulincer (2002^b) claimed that fearfully avoidant individuals are similar to the AAI's E3 subcategory of U category which is characterized by traumas and losses. In U category of the AAI method, E3 which is a subcategory of preoccupied attachment is marked by intense anxiety and disorganized and

generally traumatic-related discourse. Constant attention to the emotional components and the sense of insecure environment may make these people perceive their important and emotional memories as traumas and unique to their lives.

Findings of the current study suggest that the tendency of preoccupied individuals in easily accessing negative emotions may stem from their past vivid negative memories which were strongly encoded and retained. Furthermore, in both significant interactions, fearful individuals seemed to have the highest level of vividness and specificity, suggesting that they can easily recall the details of (negative) memories and have them readily accessible. Similarly, Miller (1999) found that fearful attachment enhances the processing of focal events and these people have deeper memory on attachment related negative events. Contrary to this, dismissings reported the lowest level of vividness and specificity. It appears that, consistent with their tendency to distract themselves from distress-eliciting negative events and memories, dismissing individuals tend to repress the critical, possibly anxiety eliciting, aspects of their memory by avoiding elaborate encoding and retaining autobiographical memories.

Moreover, the results of the current study indicated that attachment avoidance is a significant predictor of the property of *recollection*. This result implies that dismissive adults avoid experiencing a sense of reliving during the retrieval of an emotional memory. As cited before, within all attachment styles, avoidants were the most defensive group to emotional memories, especially to the negative memories (Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995). Tagini and his friends' (2004) study using the AAI method indicated that dismissing adult recalled less self-defining memories

which consist of emotionless descriptions of activities. His memories were over-general, as in depressed people (cited in Conway et. al., 2004). Dismissive adults are able to prevent activation of attachment system via mediation of attention, social behavior, and memory. The implicit goal of their affect regulation strategies may be avoiding attachment-related anxiety. Accordingly, the organization of the self is based on the isolated attachment-related knowledge structures from other significant knowledge structures. Therefore, the attachment-related knowledge structures remain unconnected with the broad memory system and with the processing new information (Fraley, Davis, & Shaver, 1998). The tendency of dismissive attachment ‘to escape from direct or symbolic confrontation with the threats implied in the awareness of emotional experiences’ (Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995, p.924) may also manifest itself in the retrieval of emotional memories. It seems that deactivation strategy of dismissive attachment erects a barrier between the time in which the event occurred and the present time in which the event is remembered and provides a distance between emotional content of the memory and ongoing experience of recall.

In the current study, attachment avoidance did not have significant predictive effect on the outcome variables. These findings can also be explained by the characteristics of avoidance dimension. For instance, the result of the study conducted by Sümer and Cozzarelli (2004) indicated that the model of self has a strong impact over the information process relevant to the negative-self. However, the effect of model of others, which is similar to avoidance, was observed only via its interaction with the model of self. Accordingly, it can be argued that the influence of the model of self/attachment dimension over

information processes is stronger and more observable than the effect of the model of others/avoidance dimension in the studies using self-report technique. It is plausible to claim that the reason for this difference is based upon the affect regulation strategies, because avoidant adults are able to deactivate attachment-related cognitive and emotional components via redirection of attention and repression of emotions (Fraley, Davis, & Shaver, 1998).

In general, the results of the present study were mostly consistent with literature. The assumption that the affect would highly influence the interplay between attachment and autobiographical memory was supported by the predictive effects of attachment anxiety on main affective properties of autobiographical memory. Moreover, the results related to the predictive effect of attachment avoidance and the interaction patterns which show the significant difference between dismissive attachment and fearful attachment imply that the secondary regulation strategies manipulate the retrieval and recall processes of autobiographical memories.

4.2. The effects of Accepting the Past on Autobiographical Memory

The construct of accepting the past was conceptualized by Santor and Zuroff (1994) to develop a mean for the measurement of ego-integrity. Accordingly, accepting the past has not been one of the variables examined by the studies either on autobiographical memory or on attachment. The current study illustrated that the accepting the past is a critical concept which consistently associated with both attachment anxiety and memory.

Accepting the past has a predictive effect on the perspective of the participants during recall of the given memory. In the study conducted by Nigro and Neisser (1983) individuals who were assigned to high emotional self-awareness seemed to be more often recollected as an observer in the event. Therefore, the authors claimed that emotion may determine the point of view in memories (cited in Talarico, Labar & Rubin, 2004). The relationship between accepting the past and viewpoint of the person during remembering the memory may be explained by the need for self-protection. To see the emotional memories with an observer viewpoint may produce a self-protective distance to the memory for the person.

Accepting the past predicted the basic affective properties of autobiographical memory, namely visceral reactions and positive and negative valence. Participants who scored high in accepting the past are more likely to recall positively charged memories. The individuals who accept their past tend to endorse with high positive valence for their autobiographical memories, while they obtained lower scores in negative valence. There are a few of explanation for this association. One possible reason is that accepting the past may facilitate access of positively charged memories, while failing accepting the past may increase the accessibility of negatively charged memories. Another explanation for this result is the differences in perception of negative events. In other words, failing accepting the past may cause biased perception and negative attributions to daily life events and accordingly may influence the encoding and retrieval processes. The predictive effect of accepting the past on negative and positive valence can also be explained by mood congruence effect. That is, the mood state of the participants might lead them to recall the memories and to evaluate their pasts according to their

moods, negative or positive, during the application of the questionnaires. Although there is no study supporting first two explanations, the study conducted by Santor and Zuroff (1994) indicated that low level of accepting the past was robustly associated with negative affectivity which refers the feelings experienced in the past few weeks.

Similar to the findings about the valence, accepting the past was also a consistent predictor of the visceral reactions. The participants failing accepting the past reported stronger visceral reactions than the participants with high levels of accepting the past did. This tendency may be related to the breakdown in the balance between adaptive correspondence and self-coherence as in observed pattern of preoccupied participant's narratives in Tagini and his colleagues' study (2004) using the AAI technique (cited in Conway et al., 2004). As described previously, adaptive correspondence represents the need to operate information processing for a new stimulus, while self-coherence represents the need to maintain a consistent and stable record of the self. Failing accepting the past may produce a conflict between ongoing process and the need for self-coherence. As it happens in high attachment anxiety, failing accepting the past may cause sensitivity to emotional cues and overwhelming responses to the emotionally charged memories via challenging goal attainment, recall of a memory in this case and undermining the control of the working self on the balance between two demands (Conway et al., 2004). In summary, the results related to accepting the past of the current study, however, do not allow drawing a conclusion about the ways in which accepting the past influences affective and cognitive processes in autobiographical memory.

Reminiscing about the past significantly correlated with several properties of autobiographical memory, especially with the cognitive properties. This is an expected finding given that reminiscing strengthens the effect of repetition and practicing of information. Practiced materials are more resistant, more accessible, and more persistent (Ebbinghaus, 1885/1964). The individuals who tend to reminisce about the past and those having a habituation in reminiscing have much more chance of practicing their memories. Thus, these individuals' memories are expected to be more coherent (narrative coherence), emotionally persistent, vivid, accessible (rehearsal), believable, and sequentially well-organized (chronological order) than those who have less chance of practice.

4.3. Impact of Attachment on Accepting and Reminiscing the Past

Although attachment dimensions did not have a significant effect on reminiscing the past, as expected, attachment anxiety consistently predicted the degree of accepting the past. These findings suggest that individuals with high attachment anxiety have difficulties in accepting their past reflecting their ambivalent tendencies. The predictive effect of attachment anxiety on accepting the past can be explained in terms of the hyperactivating strategies which cause to access negative memories (Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995), to excessive focus on the negative aspects of their personality (Mikulincer, 1998), to automatic activation of negative emotions (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2002), to spread of dominant emotional tone, and to increase the intensity of dominant or nondominant emotion (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004). Preoccupied individuals tend to think over threat-related concerns and to keep these concerns active (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). Attachment anxiety

appears to lead to negative and unsatisfactory appraisals for a one's past via consistent attention to the self deficits and negative emotions.

4.4. Impact of Gender and Age on Test Variables

In the regression analyses, the effect of gender was consistently found the intensity, rehearsal, and importance properties of autobiographical memory. In regression analyses for the intensity from accepting the past and from reminiscing the past, the contribution of gender was significant. In predicting the rehearsal from accepting the past, from reminiscing the past, and from attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance, gender significantly contributed to the equations and it was observed that women reported higher scores in rehearsal than men did. Lastly, the regression analyses for predicting importance from reminiscing the past and from attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance, the predictive effect of gender was again observed.

The findings of previous studies regarding the effect of gender on memory and attachment related variables are not consistent. In a few studies, a relatively small gender effect was found (e.g., Rubin, Schulkind, & Rahhal, 1999). In importance, recollection, and rehearsal of autobiographical memories, female participants reported higher scores than men did. The findings of the current study supported the argument that women differ from men in autobiographical memory, but with a small range.

The gender differences in emotional intensity, rehearsal, and importance of the memory can be explained by the degree of emotionality between men and

women. Consistent with this argument, Bohanek, Fivush, and Walker (2005) indicated that the content of the women's narratives was related to emotional valence of the memories, and subjective ratings of frequency of talking/thinking about the event, significance, uniqueness, emotionality, and vividness were related to emotional intensity. The analysis of content and structure of women's narratives showed that negative narratives contained more negative emotional expressions, cognitive processing words, and passive sentences, whereas positive narratives contained more positive emotional expressions and were more complex than negative narratives.

The contribution of age was significant in predicting reminiscing the past from attachment dimensions. In the literature, there is no study focused on reminiscing about the past in young adults. Furthermore, the studies on the distribution of autobiographical memory have usually examined the differences between older adults and middle-aged individuals, not adolescence and young adulthood. But, this finding can be explained by the 'age difference in the self concept'. The self in adolescence is still being developed and changed (Anderson, Cohen, & Taylor, 2000, p.452) and this process influences organization and processes of autobiographical memory. The study conducted by Neimeyer and Raeshide (1991) indicated that identity status determine the recall of personal memories. Marcia's paradigm (cited in Neimeyer & Raeshide, 1991) proposed four identity statuses consisting of diffuse, moratorium, foreclosed, and achieved status. Diffuse identity status refers to lack of negotiation the tasks of ego development, while moratorium identity status refers to active struggles to achieve a coherent identity and ongoing process of identity development. Foreclosed individuals complete their

identity development via adapting parental value systems. Lastly, achieved individuals developed a stable identity after a period of exploration and identity crisis. While the first two identity statuses represent uncompleted identity development, foreclosed and achieved identity status imply a completed identity development. The results of this study demonstrated that the participants from foreclosed and achieved identity statuses recalled more autobiographical memories than the participants from uncompleted identity statuses. The differences in number of recalled memories in four identity status signify that well-developed ego-identity increases the accessibility of autobiographical memories. At this point, it is plausible to argue that age difference in reminiscing about the past is based on the organization of self and development of ego-identity. It can be assumed that the identity formation completes in thirties and autobiographical memory recall increases in older ages.

4.5. Conclusion and Main Contributions of the Present Study

The main purpose of the current study is to examine the effect of attachment on the phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory. The results of the study supported major hypotheses and provided evidence for the predictive effect of attachment dimensions on autobiographical memory. Moreover, the connection of accepting the past with attachment dimensions and autobiographical memory was illustrated.

In the literature, there is limited number of studies on the attachment differences in autobiographical memory and the role of accepting the past has not been investigated in this context. Therefore, the current study essentially contributed

to the literature via delineating intertwined components of attachment and autobiographical memory system and examining accepting the past on this frame. The findings of this thesis demonstrated that attachment dimensions, especially attachment anxiety, influence the affective properties of autobiographical memory and particular cognitive properties of autobiographical memory. Attachment anxiety is characterized by high accessibility of negative emotions, overwhelming visceral reactions to the recalled emotional memories, and vividness of emotional memories due to hyperactivating strategies. The interaction effect illustrated the diminishing effect of deactivating strategies of dismissive adults on the cognitive properties of autobiographical memory, namely specificity, vividness, and cognitive aspect of autobiographical memory, while the contrast tendencies between hyperactivation and deactivation of fearful adults lead higher scores in these variables.

The general tendency of the studies on autobiographical memory is to examine the content, emotional, and importance valence of the recalled memories. On the other hand, the phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory which consist of the experiences of recall are the peripheral research questions of autobiographical memory (Gulgoz & Rubin, 2001). There is a need for further studies on autobiographical memory in adults which will integrate the findings with different memory systems, retrieval processes, and neural systems (Rybash, 1999). The current study contributed to the literature in the aspect of individual differences in retrieval processes. The effect of attachment dimensions on the phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory was introduced in terms of affect regulation strategies and the SMS model. The focus of the studies on the relationship between

memory and attachment was broadened by the account of autobiographical memory and attachment theory.

The noteworthy contribution of the present study is to document the connections between accepting the past, attachment dimensions, and autobiographical memory although the nature of these associations are still unknown. It seems that not accepting the past is a characteristic of high attachment anxiety and attachment anxiety consistently predict main affective properties of autobiographical memory including visceral reactions, negative and positive valence. These findings call for examining possible mediating and/or moderating relationships among these variables.

4.6. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

There are a number of limitations of the present study which have important implications for further studies. Firstly, self-report technique seems less powerful than interview method for the research subject, because of the subjectivity in evaluation of phenomenological properties of autobiographical memory. This limitation can be dealt with by using content analysis of written memories. However, the reported memories in the present study do not provide detailed information for the content analysis. In further studies, interview technique or content analysis for the self-report technique should be used. Moreover, self-report measures of attachment are much less powerful than the interview techniques, especially the AAI (See Sümer, 2006). This creates a problem in understanding the dynamic of dismissing attachment on autobiographical memory processes because of active use of deactivating strategies. Future researchers should examine in

depth how affect regulation strategies influence autobiographical memory processes.

Potentially, measuring the properties of autobiographical memory with one or two questions created a critical limitation by decreasing the predictive power of the scales. To deal with this problem a factor analysis was performed for the AMQ items that yielded two factors (affective and cognitive aspects) with multiple items. Although a significant effect was observed in affective aspect of the autobiographical memory, by doing this, the properties of memory was not discriminated in the analyses. In future studies the properties of the memory, especially should be measured with multiple items that could give high reliability and predictive power.

In the present study, the ECR-R scale was given to the participants after the MPQ and the AMQ and it might prevent mood congruence between the attachment measurement and the autobiographical memory recall and might weaken the expected associations among the main variables. In order to avoid this problem, attachment scale should be given before autobiographical memory task or the memory content required from the participants should be clarified , such as close-relationship related memories in future studies. Moreover, it may be more beneficial that the studies on the interplay between autobiographical memory and attachment in romantic relationships study with those who have been already in an ongoing romantic relationship, because the recollection and belief about the close relationships are not clear for individuals who are not currently in a romantic relationship.

The association of accepting the past with attachment dimensions, and autobiographical memory needs further studies to understand underlying implications of these relationships. The study conducted by Santor and Zuroff (1994) indicated that failing accepting the past was consistently related to negative affectivity and to depressive syndrome under moderated effect of negative affectivity in older adults. In the present study, the results imply that failing accepting the past may be a characteristic of high attachment anxiety and may lead memory deficits and negative emotional tone in memory contents in young adults. This relationship can be observed more apparent in older adults, because older people have longer life history and more efficient in evaluating their past as compared to the young adults. These findings have implications for further studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

Değerli katılımcılar,

Kişisel anılar ve yakın ilişkiler konusunda bir araştırma yürütmekteyiz. Bunun için size bazı sorular soracağız ve bazı anketleri doldurmanızı rica edeceğiz. Bu anketler size verilen zarfın içindedir.

Lütfen anketteki açıklamaları **dikkatlice okuyunuz** ve sorulara **içtenlikle** cevap veriniz. Lütfen **anketleri verilen sıra ile doldurunuz**; bir anketi bitirdikten sonra sırası ile diğer ankete geçiniz ve **soru atlamayınız**; çünkü araştırmanın analizi için soruların tamamının cevaplanmış olması önem taşımaktadır. Doldurulmuş olan anketleri zarfa koyarak, zarfın ağzını kapatınız ve zarfın arařtırmacıya geri dönmesini sağlayınız. Ölçeklere **adınızı yazmanıza gerek yoktur, verdiğiniz bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacıyla kullanılacak ve kişi bazında analiz yapılmayacaktır.**

Çalışmamıza katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz...

ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü
Yüksek Lisan Öğrencisi
İnci B. Şengül

APPENDIX B

Personal Data Sheet

Cinsiyetiniz: Erkek ___ Kadın ___

Yaş (yıl olarak): ___

Medeni Haliniz (uygun seçeneği işaretleyin):

Evli ___ Nişanlı ___ Birisiyle yaşıyorum ___ Boşandım ___

Bekar ___ Diğer _____

Yaşamınız boyunca en uzun süreyle bulunduğunuz yerleşim birimi (Birini işaretleyiniz)?

Kırsal ___ Büyük şehir ___ Şehir ___

En son mezun olduğunuz okul: İlkokul ___ Ortaokul ___

Lise ___ Üniversite ___ Yüksek Lisans ___

Şu an öğrenci iseniz, okuduğunuz okulun ismini yazınız:

APPENDIX C

Meaningful Past Questionnaire (Santor & Zuroff, 1994) (Geçmiş Anlamlandırma Ölçeği)

Bu ölçekteki sorular kişilerin geçmişlerini nasıl değerlendirdiklerini anlamak amacı ile hazırlanmıştır. Aşağıda, **geçmişte yaşanılanlar** hakkında hissedilenlere ilişkin örnekler bulunmaktadır. Sizden istenilen her bir maddeyi **dikkatli bir şekilde okuyarak**, ifadeye ne derece katılıp katılmadığınıza karar vermenizdir. Kararınızı aşağıdaki 7 aralıklı cetvel üzerinde size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyerek veriniz. Örneğin, verilen ifadeyle tümüyle hemfikirsenez 7'yi, verilen ifadeye hiç katılmıyorsanız 1'i ya da emin değilseniz 4'ü işaretleyiniz.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Hiç	Oldukça	Biraz	Kararsızım	Biraz	Oldukça	Tümüyle
	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum
1. Geçmişim hakkında düşünmek bana mutluluktan çok acı verir (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Geçmişteki şeylerden çok bugünkü şeylerden bahsetmeyi tercih ederim (R)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Geçmişte yaptığım şeylerden bahsederken kendimi rahat hissederim (A).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Bazen hayatımı hiç yaşama şansı bulamadığım hissine kapılıyorum (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Geçmişimin zorlu dönemlerini görmezden gelirim (R)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Gerçek anlamda mutlu olmam için geçmişimdeki bazı şeyleri düzeltmem, yerli yerine koymam gerekiyor (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Geçmişimdeki yaşantılarımı pek sık düşünmem (R)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Geçmişimde beni korkutan şeyler var (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Geçmişimin zorlu dönemleriyle uğraşmak yerine onları görmezden gelmeyi tercih ederim (R)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Geçmiş yaşantılarım benim için önemli olsa da, onlar hakkında düşünmemeyi tercih ederim (R)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Hayatımda, asla kabullenemeyeceğim hayal kırıklıklarım var (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Önceki kimi kişisel yaşantılarımı (anılarımı) düşünmek hala çok zor (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Genel olarak baktığımda, yaşamımın geldiği noktadan memnunum (A).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Yaşamımla ilgili kabullenmekte zorlandığım şeyler var (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Hiç Oldukça Biraz Kararsızım Biraz Oldukça Tümüyle
Katılmıyorum Katılmıyorum Katılmıyorum Katılıyorum Katılıyorum Katılıyorum

15. Çok anlamlı bir hayat sürmedim (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Yapmış olduğum şeylere bir tatmin duygusuyla geri dönüp bakarım (A).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Geçmişim hakkında düşünmeye dair hiç isteğim yok (R)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Geçmiş yaşantılarım hakkında sıklıkla düşünürüm (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Her şeyi hesaba kattığımda, geçmişteki tercihlerimle ilgili içim rahat (A).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Geçmişe dönüp baktığımda doyum hissediyorum (A).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Geçmişimi anımsamayı seviyorum (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Bazı çocukluk yaşantılarım hakkında halen kızgınlık hissediyorum (A)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Geçmişimdeki hem iyi hem kötü yaşantılarımdan mümkün olduğunca çok şey hatırlamaya çalışırım (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Geçmişimi ne reddediyorum, ne de kabulleniyorum. Sadece geçmişimi geçmişte bıraktım (R)*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Çok uzun zaman önce olmuş şeyler için üzülmem (A).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Geçmişimdeki yaşantılarımı sık sık başkalarına anlatırım (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Şimdiye kadar yaptığım şeylerden genellikle tatmin olmuş hissederim (A).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Doldurmuş olduğunuz anketi cevaplarken aklınıza gelen anılarınızı unutmamaya çalışınız, çünkü bir sonraki anketimiz şimdi doldurduğunuz anket ile ilişkilidir.
Lütfen **ara vermeden** diğer ankete geçiniz.

A= Accepting the past

R= Reminiscing the past

** These items are reversed in the analyses.*

APPENDIX D

Autobiographical Memory Questionnaire (Talarico, Labar, & Rubin, 2004) (Otobiyografik Bellek Ölçeği)

Bu bölümde cevap vereceğiniz sorular “**otobiyografik anılarımız**” ile ilgilidir. Otobiyografik anılar, kişisel geçmişinizdeki olaylara ilişkin anılarınızdır. Bu anılar, genellikle çok **özeldir** ve sizin kişisel olarak belleğinize kazınmış, **zamanını bilebildiğiniz** belli olaylardır. Otobiyografik anılar, birçok olaydan oluşan ya da zaman sürecinde yaşanan film gibi anılardan ziyade bir **film karesi** gibi özel bir kesitten oluşurlar. Genellikle, bu kesite ait **kişiler, ortam ve durum** aklınıza anı ile birlikte gelir. Ancak, bu özelliklerin hepsi her bir otobiyografik anımızda bulunmayabilir. Bu anılar, buraya geldiğiniz zamanın hemen öncesinden başlayıp, çocukluğunuzun ilk yıllarına kadar giden zamanın herhangi bir anından olabilir. Otobiyografik anılar, katı gerçekler ve gelecekte olacak olaylar hakkında değildir. Bu açıklamalar ışığında, şimdi **bir önceki anketimizi (Geçmiş Değerlendirme Ölçeği’ni) doldururken aklınıza gelen** kişisel anılarınızı düşününüz. Bu bölümde sizden beklenen, aklınıza gelen bu anılardan **üçünü** kısaca verilen yere özetlemeniz ve özetlediğiniz her bir anı ile ilgili soruları cevaplamanızdır. Lütfen, aklınıza gelmiş olan kişisel anılarınızdan üçünü seçiniz. İlk anınızı kısaca yazdıktan sonra, hemen ardında gelen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve size en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. İlgili soruları tamamladıktan sonra bir sonraki anınızı yazınız ve bu anı ile ilgili soruları cevaplayınız. Bu şekilde anketi tamamlayınız.

7. Bu olayı anımsarken, hissettiğim duygular *oldukça olumludur* (Positive Valence).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Hemen hemen Kısmen Tamamen
8. Bu olayı anımsarken, hissettiğim duygular *oldukça olumsuzdur* (Negative Valence).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Hemen hemen Kısmen Tamamen
9. Bu olayı anımsarken, hissettiğim duygular *oldukça yoğundur* (Intensity).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Hemen hemen Kısmen Tamamen
10. Bu olayı anımsarken, *kalbimin küt küt attığını ya da hızlandığını* hissederim (Visceral).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Hemen hemen Kısmen Diğer anılarıma göre daha fazla
11. Bu olayı anımsarken, *terlediğimi, sırlı sıklam* olduğumu hissederim (Visceral).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Hemen hemen Kısmen Diğer anılarıma göre daha fazla
12. Bu olayı anımsarken, *gerginleşirim ya da midem kilitlenir, kasılma ya da bulantılar* hissederim (Visceral).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Hemen hemen Kısmen Diğer anılarıma göre daha fazla
13. Bu olayı anımsarken, olay *gözümde* canlanır (Vividness).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Belli belirsiz Oldukça açık bir şekilde Tam olarak bu şekilde, sanki şimdi yaşıyordum gibi açık ve net
14. Bu olayı anımsarken, olay *kulaklarımda* yankılanır (Vividness).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Belli belirsiz Oldukça açık bir şekilde Tam olarak bu şekilde, sanki şimdi yaşıyordum gibi açık ve net
15. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayın nasıl bir *ortamda* geçtiğini hatırlarım (Vividness).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Belli belirsiz Oldukça açık bir şekilde Tam olarak bu şekilde, sanki şimdi yaşıyordum gibi açık ve net
16. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayın olduğu *zamana geri* yolculuk yapıyordum gibi hissederim (Recollection).
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Hiçbir zaman Hemen hemen Kısmen Tamamen

17. Bu anım, pek çok insanın bileceğini beklediğim genel bilgilere değil, *hayatıma özgü* ayrıntılara dayanır (Specificity).
- | | | | | | | |
|--------------|----------------------|---|--------------------|---|---|---------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiçbir zaman | Bazı ayrıntılar için | | Bazı bölümler için | | | Tamamen |
18. Bu olayı anımsarken, bu anı aklıma *kelime kelime* gelir (Linguistic).
- | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------|---|---|--------|---|---------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiçbir zaman | Hemen hemen | | | Kısmen | | Tamamen |
19. Bu olayı anımsarken, sadece ne olduğunu bilmekten ziyade olayı gerçekten *hatırlarım* (Recollection).
- | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------|---|---|--------|---|---------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiçbir zaman | Hemen hemen | | | Kısmen | | Tamamen |
20. Bu olay olduğundan beri, olay hakkında *düşünmekteyim ya da konuşmaktayım* (Rehearsal).
- | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------|---|---|--------|---|---------------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiçbir zaman | Hemen hemen | | | Kısmen | | Diğer anılarıma göre daha fazla |
21. Bu anı, ben onu hatırlamaya çalışmadığım halde *aklıma birdenbire geldi* (Rehearsal).
- | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------|---|---|--------|---|---------------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiçbir zaman | Hemen hemen | | | Kısmen | | Diğer anılarıma göre daha fazla |
22. Belleğimdeki bu olayın *anımsadığım şekilde gerçekleştiğine* inanıyorum. Olmayan herhangi bir şeyi hayal etmiş ya da uydurmuş değilim (Belief).
- | | | | | | | |
|------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| %100 hayal | | | | | | %100 gerçek |
23. Bu olayı *zamansal sırası içinde* (öncesini, olay sırasını, sonrasını bilerek) hatırlarım (Chronology)*.
- | | | | | | | |
|--------------|---|-------------|---|--------|---|---------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiçbir zaman | | Hemen hemen | | Kısmen | | Tamamen |
24. Bu olayın sizin için *önemini* belirtiniz (Importance)*.
- | | | | | | | |
|------------------|---|---------------------|---|---------------|---|------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiç önemli değil | | Hemen hemen önemsiz | | Kısmen önemli | | Çok önemli |
25. Bu *olayın olduğu an* hissettiğim duygular çok *yoğundu* (Past Intensity)*.
- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|-------------|---|--------|---|-------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiç yoğun değildi | | Hemen hemen | | Kısmen | | Çok yoğundu |
26. Bu olayın olduğu sırada kaç yaşında idiniz? _____ yaşında

* These items were taken from the study of Er and Ucar (2004).

APPENDIX F

Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000) (Yakın İlişkilerde Yaşantılar Envanteri-II)

Aşağıdaki ifadeler birlikte olduğunuz kişilerle ilişkilerinizde hissettiğiniz duygularla ilintilidir. Bu araştırmada, sizin ilişkinizde yalnızca şu an değil genel olarak neler olduğuyula ya da neler yaşadığınızla ilgilenmekteyiz. Ankette sözü geçen “birlikte olduğum kişi” ifadesi ile romantik ilişkide bulunduğunuz kişi kastedilmektedir. Eğer halihazırda bir romantik ilişki içerisinde değilseniz, aşağıdaki maddeleri bir ilişki içinde olduğunuzu varsayarak cevaplandırınız. Her bir maddenin ilişkilerinizdeki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşılardaki 7 aralıklı cetvel üzerinde, ilgili rakama çarpı (X) koyarak gösteriniz.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Hiç	Oldukça	Biraz	Kararsızım	Biraz	Oldukça	Tümüyle
	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum
1. Birlikte olduğum kişinin sevgisini kaybetmekten korkarım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi birlikte olduğum kişiye göstermemeyi tercih ederim (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin artık benimle olmak istemeyeceği korkusuna kapılırım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Özel duygu ve düşüncelerimi birlikte olduğum kişiyle paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissedirim (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin beni gerçekten sevmediği duygusuna kapılırım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere güvenip inanmak bana zor gelir (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilerin beni, benim onları önemsemişim kadar önemsemeyeceklerinden endişe duyarım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere yakın olma konusunda çok rahatımdır (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin bana duyduğu hislerin benim ona duyduğum hisler kadar güçlü olmasını isterim (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. İlişkilerimi kafama çok takarım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Benden uzakta olduğunda, birlikte olduğum kişinin başka birine ilgi duyabileceği korkusuna kapılırım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi benimle çok yakın olmak istediğinde rahatsızlık duyarım (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere duygularımı gösterdiğimde, onların benim için aynı şeyleri hissetmeyeceğinden korkarım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Birlikte olduğum kişiyle kolayca yakınlaşabilirim (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Birlikte olduğum kişinin beni terk edeceğinden pek endişe duymam (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Birlikte olduğum kişiyle yakınlaşmak bana zor gelmez (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi kendime olan güvenimi sarsar (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Genellikle, birlikte olduğum kişiyle sorunlarımı ve kaygılarımı tartışırım (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Terk edilmekten pek korkmam (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Zor zamanlarımda, romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiden yardım istemek bana iyi gelir (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Birlikte olduğum kişinin, bana istediğim kadar yakın olmadığını düşünürüm (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiler bazen bana olan duygularını sebepsiz yere değiştirirler (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Birlikte olduğum kişiye hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Başımdan geçenleri birlikte olduğum kişiyle konuşurum (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Çok yakın olma arzumu bazen insanları korkutup uzaklaştırır (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Birlikte olduğum kişiler benimle çok yakınlaştığında gergin hissederim (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Romantik ilişkide olduğum bir kişi beni yakından tanıdıkça, benden hoşlanmayacağından korkarım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere güvenip inanma konusunda rahatımdır (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Birlikte olduğum kişiden ihtiyaç duyduğum şefkat ve desteği görememek beni öfkelenendirir (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiye güvenip inanmak benim için kolaydır (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Başka insanlara denk olamamaktan endişe duyarım (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Birlikte olduğum kişiye şefkat göstermek benim için kolaydır (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Birlikte olduğum kişi beni sadece kızgın olduğumda fark eder (AX).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Birlikte olduğum kişi beni ve ihtiyaçlarımı gerçekten anlar (AV).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

AX = Anxiety AV = Avoidance